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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

Proceedings

OF THE

SIXTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING

HELD AT

COLUMBUS, OHIO

JUNE 28-JULY 4, 1930

VOLUME 68

HUMBOLDT STATE TEACHERS
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The National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street N. W.
Washington, D. C.

MEMBERSHIP FEES AND PUBLICATIONS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The National Education Association has three classes of membership:

1. The $2 membership entitles one to all the privileges of membership and to receive *The Journal of the National Education Association* for one year. (9 issues.)

2. The $5 membership entitles one to all the privileges of membership and to receive for one year (a) *The Journal of the National Education Association;* (b) the annual volume of *Addresses and Proceedings;* (c) the *Research Bulletin;* (d) occasional bulletins and reports.

3. The $100 life membership entitles one to the publications and privileges of the $5 membership for life.

Several departments of the National Education Association have separate membership fees and issue department publications. Membership in the National Education Association is a prerequisite to membership in any Department of the Association. *The payment of one of the membership fees of the National Education Association does not include membership in any department having membership fee.* The membership of the departments which issue publications follows:

1. The Department of Superintendence—$5 membership entitles one to receive for one year (a) The *Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, which includes a list of members; (b) the *Official Report* of the Winter Meeting; and (c) the N. E. A. *Research Bulletin* (5 issues).

2. The Department of Elementary School Principals—$3 membership entitles one to participate in the work of the department, to receive its bulletins issued in October, January, April, and July, and the N. E. A. *Research Bulletin* (5 issues). The April number of the *Bulletin* is a yearbook containing approximately five hundred pages.

3. The Department of Secondary School Principals—$2 entitles one to active membership and to receive its bulletins issued in January, March, April, May, and October. The March number is the proceedings of the annual meeting.

4. The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction—$4 membership entitles one to active membership and to the *Journal of Educational Method.*

5. The Department of Adult Education—$2 fee entitles one to membership and the *Adult Education Bulletin.*

6. The Department of Social Studies—$2.25 entitles one to membership and to the *Historical Outlook.*

The American Association of Teachers Colleges (a department) publishes a yearbook which goes to institutions paying a membership fee of $10. The Department of Classroom Teachers, which has no membership fee, also publishes a yearbook which sells for $1.50.

The volume of *Addresses and Proceedings* may be purchased by nonmembers for $3.

Membership fees of the National Education Association and its departments and inquiries concerning all publications should be sent to 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C., except for the Department of Secondary School Principals. These should go to Mr. H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Ave., Berwyn, Ill.

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FOREWORD

THIS BOOK records the 68th annual convention of the National Education Association. It also includes the report of the Department of Superintendence Convention held in Atlantic City last February and that of the American Association of Teachers Colleges (a department) held at that time. A few of the other departments also hold their meetings at the time of the winter convention.

This volume contains the first record of two new departments—the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics. Both of these groups begin as departments with a background of real accomplishment in their previous work as separate organizations.

July 26 was an eventful day in the history of the National Education Association for on that date the cornerstone of the new headquarters building was laid. The addresses in connection with the occasion are printed in the rear of this book. (See page 1100.)

Suggestions from members relative to the content or form of the *Proceedings* will be welcomed.

JOY ELMER MORGAN, *Director, Division of Publications.*

LYLE W. ASHBY, *Assistant Director, Division of Publications.*

Membership of the National Education Association

Count made December 31 each year

	1907	*1917*	*1922*	*1924*	*1926*	*1927*	*1928*	*1929*
Alabama	55	64	708	1,016	1,142	1,150	1,331	1,635
Arizona	20	37	1,107	1,669	2,095	2,186	2,262	2,524
Arkansas	17	33	327	442	765	810	857	876
California	249	432	9,592	15,213	17,924	18,497	19,486	20,887
Colorado	75	140	3,820	4,284	4,450	4,582	4,663	4,620
Connecticut	58	102	1,319	1,770	1,986	1,997	2,051	1,893
Delaware	9	13	343	752	802	756	721	759
District of Columbia	47	96	595	1,949	1,449	1,432	1,370	1,276
Florida	16	33	320	1,051	2,225	2,819	2,651	2,490
Georgia	50	74	231	459	671	645	1,909	2,713
Idaho	21	48	497	621	950	1,049	1,050	988
Illinois	420	733	7,475	8,961	9,303	11,253	11,197	12,045
Indiana	128	207	3,137	4,437	6,439	5,315	5,902	6,457
Iowa	93	185	5,944	3,536	3,313	3,342	3,342	3,218
Kansas	84	195	1,399	1,890	2,696	2,789	3,020	3,256
Kentucky	60	85	431	543	1,244	1,321	1,362	1,428
Louisiana	42	54	932	1,026	906	770	636	807
Maine	32	51	2,105	1,867	1,782	1,643	1,769	1,696
Maryland	55	94	529	1,567	1,371	952	882	1,592
Massachusetts	332	366	10,696	6,197	5,415	5,646	6,340	5,191
Michigan	139	251	7,466	8,977	10,311	11,256	12,230	13,652
Minnesota	145	103	2,281	2,704	3,800	5,773	7,518	5,805
Mississippi	16	38	156	273	312	274	361	560
Missouri	216	512	3,234	3,176	3,186	2,973	3,219	3,287
Montana	21	60	337	333	313	612	886	985
Nebraska	71	114	2,651	2,721	2,602	2,376	2,313	2,331
Nevada	4	19	310	562	684	778	753	783
New Hampshire	30	38	625	557	460	431	454	337
New Jersey	198	280	3,427	4,269	6,488	7,173	7,678	9,080
New Mexico	13	33	384	319	286	354	430	536
New York	948	1,230	10,031	9,973	9,278	8,666	10,315	10,522
North Carolina	23	62	323	430	634	716	854	1,066
North Dakota	42	83	497	584	508	517	588	556
Ohio	349	534	8,383	9,881	14,587	16,785	19,490	23,850
Oklahoma	23	95	1,252	1,477	1,565	1,801	1,781	1,880
Oregon	19	154	1,041	2,288	2,877	2,816	2,794	2,770
Pennsylvania	325	535	6,279	10,423	17,650	18,459	19,316	21,206
Rhode Island	32	47	215	322	474	319	371	336
South Carolina	22	31	89	484	614	633	635	1,168
South Dakota	40	51	785	1,066	1,188	1,198	1,288	1,269
Tennessee	31	60	615	869	1,126	1,115	1,457	2,215
Texas	48	138	1,089	2,049	3,726	4,997	3,469	3,440
Utah	30	66	2,879	1,678	2,093	2,562	2,842	2,994
Vermont	30	40	398	432	330	417	450	370
Virginia	40	88	1,082	1,480	1,717	1,794	2,015	2,010
Washington	68	144	3,413	3,334	5,465	6,399	5,625	4,778
West Virginia	24	114	736	1,810	2,729	2,603	2,513	2,602
Wisconsin	160	277	3,316	3,428	3,826	4,062	4,228	4,368
Wyoming	12	22	1,271	1,198	1,133	1,206	1,146	1,100
Alaska	.....	...	93	105	163	161	161	171
Canal Zone	.....	...	3	2	95	107	65	65
Hawaii	.....	.....	1,168	1,827	2,506	2,593	2,624	2,573
Porto Rico	.....	.....	27	67	64	79	86	338
Philippine Islands	.....	....	519	221	59	83	110	117
Virgin Islands	.....	....	10	123	108	105	56	11
Foreign	.....	205	140	164	168	203	223	199
	4,982	8,466	118,032	138,856	170,053	181,350	193,145	205,681

The next official count will be made December 31, 1930. Will it be 215,000? We can reach that goal by a little extra effort. Let every school, city and county already 100 percent maintain its record next year and let those which have not yet reached the 100 percent goal increase their membership by at least 10 percent.

How This Book is Built

The conventions of the National Education Association are great congresses which bring together a wide variety of interests. This volume reflects those interests. Persons who use it will save time by forming a picture of its contents and arrangement.

The opening pages cover the speeches before the General Sessions at the Columbus meeting. These are followed by the reports of the Association's active committees. The addresses and minutes of the National Council of Education are next in order and are followed by addresses and minutes of the Association's departments. The closing pages are devoted to records and information pertaining to the Association since its organization in 1857. The volume as a whole represents the efforts of hundreds of persons engaged in all branches of education activity.

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General Sessions

After the Atlanta Convention in 1929 it was thought that the next few cities to act as host to the Association would have an extremely difficult task to equal or approach the entertainment and local plans worked out by Atlanta. But Columbus did it—and so efficiently that to the casual observer it appeared easy. Courtesy luncheons and air rides, an inspiring and spectacular pageant, a reception by the Governor of Ohio, and a magnificent flag drill participated in by several thousand school children were among the many delightful features furnished by the teachers and citizens of Columbus and Ohio.

The general sessions were held in the Columbus auditorium. The educational exhibits were held in the basement of the same building. The theme of the Convention was "Vital Values in Education."

In addition to the general sessions and the department meetings, the following groups held meetings as scheduled in the program: American Association of Visiting Teachers, American Classical League, Conference on Education by Radio, Conference of High School Teachers, National Conference on Student Participation in School Government, National Council of Geography Teachers, National Council of Teachers of English, National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, National Geographic Society, National League of Teachers Associations, National Organization of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics, National Vocational Guidance Association, School Garden Association of America.

IDEALS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

WILLIAM O. THOMPSON, PRESIDENT EMERITUS, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

THE writer of the Book of Proverbs in the 29th chapter, the 18th verse, uses these words, "where there is no vision the people perish." The word translated "vision" in this proverb is one of several so translated. The particular word, however, in this text carries a rhetorical imagery taken from the customs of kings who only admitted to their presence those whom they were ready to favor. The word was especially appropriate in connection with the vision of the prophet who, as the word signifies, spoke for another. In the case of the prophet, as an official, we are accustomed to say he spoke for God. The proverb accordingly from every point of view suggests the future as a determining factor in the program of life. We frequently say that the north star determines the location and direction of the streets in our cities. For the moment we imagine that these directions are determined by some local landmark, while as a matter of fact it is the stars in their courses which direct the surveyor's compass. It seems not unreasonable, therefore, to assume that some vision of the future or some mental picture of a future may be a determining factor in the human program as it finds expression in the dust and heat of a great city. The opinion may here be suggested that near-sightedness is oftentimes a great hindrance in seeing things as they really are or in seeing them in true perspective. The vision aids us in both particulars. There is no greater fallacy than the one implied in the tendency to make a purely local issue of important human experiences. Many people these days are philosophizing on Einstein's theory of relativity in a way Einstein never thought of but nevertheless quite valuable in results. The native provincialism of people everywhere fades away when they contemplate themselves as human factors, as part of a great world program. This contemplation of our wider relationships aids us in the drudgery of life and puts a new color of hopefulness into much that we do.

If the human race is ever to be liberated to enjoy the happiness of freedom, it will be when some great vision or series of visions illuminates its thinking and gives a new significance to human conduct. The writer of the Proverbs, cited above, seems to have felt that in the absence of a great and illuminating vision, life was reduced to such a monotonous treadmill as to rob it of all its finer qualities. This is spiritual death. To think of the human family plodding around like beasts of the field or insects in the forest is to put us on a level of hopelessness and despair. It is the outward look, the upward look, the intellectual and spiritual vision that cheers us on the way and makes human achievement actually possible.

How, then, shall we express these American ideals for our purpose? I venture the following suggestions.

The Public Welfare

The constitutional point of view in our American life has been an increasingly broad interpretation of what we speak of as the public welfare clause. In a real way we carry in our minds the consent of the governed as a kind of limitation upon what might be excessive power in the government. We have come steadily along in the belief that governments do not exist simply for their own sakes or for the demonstration of great power. The pomp and display so characteristic of kingdoms, empires, monarchies, and thrones all seem foreign to the American mind. We seem to find the justification of government in the needs of the people, not in the convenience of kings.

A constitutional government, quite properly, is one of simplicity. Golden crowns, highly colored vestments, an elaborate array of expensive symbols of authority, either ecclesiastical or governmental, may on occasion serve for parade purposes but in the American mind all these are symbols of a faded authority. It smiles as the parade goes by and inwardly remarks, "What fools these mortals be." The makers of such a constitutional government view with a smile the memory of a divine right of kings. These parades of a worn out authority are less effective than amusing.

On the other hand a constitutional government finds its highest justification in that type of public welfare which guarantees both civil and religious liberty and puts its emphasis upon the sacredness of human life together with those inalienable rights, life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Our inspiration for education arises out of this conception of government and of citizenship under it.

The patriotic point of view—This conception leads one to say that the inspiration to education arises out of our patriotic point of view. This may be suggested as a corollary from our theory of political science. A constitution is primarily a political document having to do with the fundamental principles of political science. It inevitably follows, therefore, that the patriotic point of view and the sound interpretation of political science puts education primarily in the horizon of governmental appropriations. This fundamental conception of education lies at the basis of public welfare. The function of government is primarily that of public welfare. This is ample warrant to say that a constitutional political science makes education the fundamental issue of government. It is this conception of public education that has fired the imagination of American people from the very beginning. They have steadily moved away from the conception that education is in any important sense a private affair. It is a great enterprise in the interest of the public. Even here the efficiency of the individual is regarded as a contribution to the public welfare. The old theory of the police power of the state as expressing the functions of government is a mere memory. The modern generation rarely, if ever, hears anything about the conception of the police power of the state; only lawyers and courts become familiar with that figure of speech. Even there the American mind insists that the police power of the state shall have the public welfare in full view.

This larger conception of education in no way interferes with the right of private initiative but will always insist that every process of education shall be free from the taint of treason or the teaching of principles or fallacies destructive of the inherent rights which government is set to protect and maintain. Our government, therefore, clearly envisions the idea of mass movements in great causes like education while not destroying the minor individual efforts of the private school or the private foundation. The great tide, however, of American thought finds its expression in public welfare rather than in private direction or control. A democracy such as ours carries as its great ideal a government of the people, by the people, and for the people. This puts every popular movement, whether in education or other fields, under the direct and final control of a government that justly represents the people. Here is where education finds the basis of its permanence. The ideal of American political science inevitably makes education a public concern.

The local point of view—In 1859 when Congress in obedience to public sentiment had passed what is now known as The Land Grant Act providing for at least one college in each state in the Union, President Buchanan intercepted with a veto based on the theory that education was exclusively a state problem. The debate around that principle was keen and decisive. The bill was again passed and signed during the Civil War by the great martyr of democracy. Men, then as now, seemed to think that certain great national issues could be diverted and referred to the states. The development of life under our constitution, the rapid changes in the organization of business and the methods of transportation have all tended to emphasize the common interests of the American people regardless of their geography. No man today is able to measure the good or the ill that would come from an illiterate belt of any extent in our country. New England is quite sure of the unmeasured and immeasurable benefits of her contribution to American life because of superior intelligence and her devotion to higher education. These things constitute part of the great vision that has carried the American people on in the expression of American life. The federal government today enters every store in the remotest portion of our land. It touches the welfare of the most obscure and least known citizen. This comprehensive attitude of the government toward its people renders impossible any theory of final control and of absolute authority upon the great issues of American life as a local issue. The nation is not interested in developing a provincial point of view. It is rather interested in developing an American point of view with a neighborly conception of all our international relations.

The Social Point of View

All of us are familiar with the frequent occurrence of this conception in some form. The social order, the socialized schools, the socialized recitations, and a score of other phrases have arisen out of the conception of education as a great social force. This recognizes the fundamental principle that the human being is fundamentally social. He is a part of a social organization.

He is born into it and cannot escape from it. The most and the best that he can do is to exert his energies for the protection and maintenance of what is good, the elimination of what is evil, and the better adjustment of all forces for the development of a social order where human rights and human liberties may have free play. In the presence of this problem we recognize the anti-social forces as expressed in all forms of selfishness, in the multiplied forms of crime, the spirit of lawlessness which is only a form of selfishness and in the general tendency in limited circles for fashionable or wealthy people to prove themselves anti-social by making personal convenience and personal pleasure the standards of conduct and citizenship. The persistent issue, therefore, before any democracy is the development of a social order under social control. Education is here the central force unifying the people in their social and educational ideals. The school is always, therefore, the organized effort for the social control of the citizens under the inspiration of an intelligent conception of the functions of government, the duty of the individual and the social advantages accruing to a society under such ideals. A democracy of necessity tolerates many things it cannot approve. There is always a minority, often vociferous beyond its importance, urging the private point of view as a substitute for the public or social welfare. One is often impressed with the way an individual point of view is substituted for the social point of view. In a recent article in an American magazine one gets the impression that everybody who goes to Canada is possessed of an insatiable thirst and a determination to deal with that thirst effectively. It is possible that such a point of view prevails in what may be termed the sporting circles, but for a hundred years thousands of our citizens have been going to Canada and would resent the idea that their transportation was guided by unpatriotic or even selfish motives. I recall that in the days of the Civil War people who went to Canada found it necessary to demonstrate that they were not refugees from civic duty. It is not quite true to our perspective to carry the vision of thousands of travelers seeking a cooler clime with but one common motive; namely, the legal gratification of a desire which seems to be under social disfavor in the land of the free. This protest, if protest it be, against a social order having the welfare of the millions at heart cannot fail to find a strong resentment in the minds of good citizens who for sufficient reasons apart from the gratification of appetite make their journeys to a friendly neighbor on the north, during the heated term.

There is nothing essentially new in this struggle for a better social order. Education, as every teacher knows, has had a continual combat with local prejudice, selfish points of view, and private ambition. These democratic variations, oftentimes vices, are as thick as blackberries in a fruitful season. About the best thing that can be said of education is that it has never surrendered its social point of view and that there always have been enough prophets in the land to sound the clarion call for education as the great unifying force for family and social life. Under the general description of politics in education or the sectarian control of public schools and similar phrases the public is continually warned against the malignant influence of any theory that substitutes private ambition for public social control. There is ample justification, therefore, for the social view of education as expressing the complete conception of public education.

The Personal View of Education

All education must, of course, find expression in the individual. A permanent democracy requires an intelligent, wellinformed, welldisposed citizen as a unit of government. All others may be classified as disturbers rather than supporters. Education is interested in developing citizens who will function as supporters of government. It is idle to think of a social order apart from government. Law is written in the very nature of things. The universe is filled with it. Human society cannot be divorced from it, even though there may be many family rows and much social disturbance. The law remains long after the dishes have been broken, the furniture destroyed, and the riot quelled. These are not governments. They are the outbreaks against government calling for the police power of the state.

The importance of the individual in such a social order will be measured substantially by his intelligence, his patriotism, his courage, and his education for efficiency as a citizen. In this matter it is well to remember that the point of view current in America is, frankly, that of Main Street. America believes in the multitude. She has a profound respect for the exceptional leader. The patriotic admiration for such men from Washington to Hoover, from Fulton to Edison, from Cyrus H. McCormick to the Wright Brothers, from Alexander Hamilton to J. P. Morgan has found a grateful expression of appreciation on every hand.

This expression of appreciation of leadership and the interest in men who achieve this leadership is a cheering inspiration for all of us. It does not interfere, however, with our concept that the average man living on Main Street, either from choice or necessity, may still carry in his heart the most cherished ideals of American education and citizenship. He may not express them as well as some; he may not have a publicity agent; he may be content to mind his own business rather than that of his neighbor. In the last analysis, however, this same citizen on Main Street will be found the stabilizing force against the eccentricities and vagaries of the segregated minorities living in fashionable clubs or in the more secluded circles of the intelligentsia. This latter class are the people who advertise their own idealism and comment upon the commonplace thinking of the majority. We need not dispute any of these statements nor need we be controled by them. They are part of the program of a free democracy.

However, there are those who very seriously believe that education should confine itself more to the development of leaders. This is a most taking and captivating conception. Recently we have been subjected to a friendly but adverse criticism to the effect that our American educational processes are wasting disastrously the intangible resources of the potential brain power of the youth. The English system is set up as a contrast because it puts its emphasis on the importance of leaders rather than upon the importance of the multitude. A system of competitive scholarships is the incentive held out before the English youth to attract them through competitive examinations to an intellectual leadership. This is the point of view quite natural to any system of government where the caste system prevails even in a modified or very mild type. Some years ago in looking up the list of titles in England beginning with the first citizen, the king, I followed down through the various ranks until either the sixty-third or sixty-fourth when I found a gentleman. In those days he was a long way from the top. I cannot express my happiness in the belief that in America he always has been at the top It is interesting to note that in countries like India where the caste system has gone to the limit there still remains a considerable class of favored men whose education has been everything that the Orient or the Occident could provide. Eastern and western civilization have met in the favored sons of India. Meantime the people have suffered under the contest between a non-resident government and a resident idealism. The dictatorship of Italy has found expression in a milder way of the same caste idea. The essence of the Soviet rule in Russia is the dictation of the central authority and the submission of the peasant. American ideals find no place in our social order or in our government policies for the type of education that insists on the education of leaders to the neglect of the multitudes who from necessity may live on Main Street. The sneers that come from certain intellectual circles during the commencement weeks of our high schools and colleges are unworthy of intelligent men educated in free institutions.

In support of this conception let it be said that no civilization ever perished for lack of brains. They have perished because there was no vision. No civilization will long endure that fails to get into its vision the conception of an educated and somewhat glorified humanity.

In summing up briefly the several points of view of this address let us make clear the three principal issues. There is the first point of view of public welfare which includes our governmental activities, involving all problems of taxation, administration, standards of service, and other administrative conditions surrounding education. The basis of all this activity lies in the constitutional conception of public welfare. The government exists because public welfare is its greatest achievement. A government of mere police power would in these days produce little short of anarchy and disorder. The helpful service of the government in practically every area of human life should be freely recognized as the best reason for its existence. The school teacher represents more in government than could possibly be conceived under the theory of a policeman's club.

The second consideration is the social point of view. In this, education is identified with the sum total of all the interests of organized society. Wherever social issues arise education should direct public sentiment so as to bring about the social control of society as a whole. This social control is involved in our struggle with crime, lawlessness, disobedience, and the selfish activities of organized endeavor. We are now witnessing a situation as to unemployment unparalleled in our history. The improvement of mechanical devices, the enormous development of the productive powers of the country with no corresponding increase in the science of distribution or consumption present an array of idleness disconcerting to every thoughtful mind. The truth, it must be confessed, is that our education has not yet penetrated organized business as it may be compelled to do later on. The fundamental economics on which our present business structure has been erected is now seriously attacked as not being in conformity with the new developments, both of production and of business methods. The school is but one factor in this social situation. Every city has its local issue. The country at large must proceed with a propaganda of education in right thinking. The propaganda of special interest or supression will not meet the situation. When America knows all the facts involved her leaders will be rapidly developed. Already, be it said with some enthusiasm, many of our best known leaders in manufacturing, in commerce, and in banking are striving for a comprehensive view that will enable the government of the United States to function more effectively in the interests of public welfare. Our progress in inventions, in the development of machinery, and in the technical phases of science has been so rapid and farreaching that we have been unable to adjust modern business to these new features.

While this process of adjustment is in progress there will be much suffering and deprivation. The American ideal as to citizenship will not permit for any length of time an indifference to these fundamental principles. Education from the lowest to the highest range is challenged now to make a contribution to our day and generation in the presence of issues of the greatest magnitude ever presented to any people. The sensitive state of mind and conscience developed through education and the increasingly ethical interpretation of Christianity have made it impossible for the American people to neglect the issues arising out of poverty and unemployment. On these matters statistical tables do not reveal the whole truth. These issues are even more acute in other parts of the world. They go to the heart of the social order and the aims of government. The threat of revolution that endangers the stability of organized society, as in Russia, may well lead us to ponder upon the obligation of educated people to develop a social order where public welfare for the millions will receive the most earnest consideration. Nothing short of a free discussion among enlightened and sympathetic circles will approach the changes in demand due to the cyclonic changes in the methods of modern business. The fact that we have immense wealth at the top is not a complete answer or proof that progress, such as it may be, is headed in the right direction. If leadership has any such place in American life, as we all believe it has, then the ethics of citizenship requires this leadership to bring us toward the light.

This generation calls for an earnest and patriotic effort through what the great Apostle of liberty called the "renewing of our minds" to meet the task of harmonizing the efficiency of machinery with the public welfare. Our American ideals developed and sustained in part by our education must come to grips with the practical situation of the masses. The supremacy of the Constitution as the basic law of the land, the importance of law as the expression of the legislative will of the people, a citizenship that respects the rights of both life and property are principles essential to the enjoyment of our most highly prized rights—life, liberty, the pursuit of happiness and the blessings of civil and religious liberty among the free people.

The undergirding of this precious heritage will be found to be the happy union of education and religion. These forces sustain the ethics of our citizenship and reveal the vision without which the people perish.

WHAT THE SCHOOLS CAN DO IN CHARACTER AND RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

WILLIS A. SUTTON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ATLANTA, GA.

I wish that for a little while we might think and see with our mind's eye the twenty-four million children to whom you and I and the teachers of this nation minister. I wish that we might forget that we are assembled to think about the technical problems of education, important as they may be, and think about the individual lives of the children of this nation. Our greatest trouble as teachers is that, in the maze of our machinery, we sometimes forget the object for which we are teaching. If I seem to make fun of some things that seem very near and dear to our hearts as teachers, I hope you will understand that it is not because I do not believe in the progressive things in education, but because sometimes in our lives we need to come back to those things that are really and truly fundamental—and when I say "fundamental" I do not mean reading, writing, and arithmetic, but the things that go to make up the character of our people.

America was obliged to think of *things* first. The forests were to be conquered, the timber was to be cut out, the land was to be reclaimed, the Indians were to be driven back—everything in America made us think of the material because it was there and we had to grapple with it. America has now reached the point where her mind, for a period at least, should be taken from the material. A man who is at the head of one of the greatest international organizations in the country said to me one day, "Sutton, the thing that is wrong with Georgia is that Georgia thinks in terms of things and not in terms of people." I carried that thought home with me and I said, "Is it true?" I considered what we think of—stocks and bonds, real estate, land, and all the things we have accumulated; I thought of their value, and I went into my statistical reports and found that we had accumulated in the 200 years of Georgia's history only four and one-half billion dollars, a paltry sum; that we had three and one-quarter million people; that every one of those three and one-quarter million people, even if you counted it in money, was worth at least $20,000 during a period of twenty or forty working years; and that those people at $20,000 a piece were worth in the neighborhood of seventy billion dollars. Yet we think more in terms of the few paltry billions it has taken us 200 years to accumulate than we think of seventy billion dollars worth of human life. For a moment will you not think with me in terms of the human soul, eternal values?

I think of what we challenging people who are past forty are forever saying to our young people, that they are too fast; that they are immoral; that they do the things we think all wrong. It is my firm conviction that the American youth of today between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five years is better than any American youth has ever been in our 300 years of history. When you speak of character as being fortitude, courage, integrity, and uprightness, the generation that we have just trained and sent out into the world was put to a test possibly as no other generation ever has been before. It went across the sea. When we called for courage, courage was there; when we asked for fortitude, it was there; when we asked for integrity, it was there; when we asked for life, they freely laid it down. In the business of this world the schools have not failed.

The youth of this land, engaged in business, has done away with all cutthroat competition of the days gone by. There was a day when the purchaser never expected to pay the marked price of an article, nor did the storekeeper expect to receive it. He priced it high, and then dropped, getting as much as he could. The youth of the land today has established a condition in business that the world never reached in all its history before.

I wish I could tell you what the schools have done already in the realm of attaining character in the churches. I make this statement about my home city—and I believe you could make it about yours—that there are more young people between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five engaged in every line of church activity today in proportion to population than ever before in all history. So I would like to speak about what we have already done in the building of the character of the young men and the young women of this nation.

It is strange to me, and yet it is true, that the very things for which we condemn youth the most are the things that make it most worthwhile to live in this generation. We say youth is fast. But speed is the essence of this generation and unless youth is fast it cannot live in this generation. I would like to see you going out to your great airport and standing there by one of your air machines as they turn the propeller slowly around and say, "Don't turn it very rapidly; be very cautious about how you turn this propeller; let us rise very gently and very slowly from the earth and be very cautious about what we are doing in this flying business." We would never rise!

The great, fast-running fruit express had brought to me from Florida and Georgia, from California and from the uttermost parts of the earth the things that I ate for breakfast and dinner today. The essence of this generation is *speed*. Watch the stars and planets as they move in their spheres and ask them: "What is the essence of life out there?" It is speed.

Yet you mothers and fathers sit around when a boy or girl gets in an automobile and say, "Go very slowly, be very careful; you may have an accident." A few folks will get killed, of course. What of it? It amounts to but little so far as the on-going of the world is concerned. Of course, I don't want to be one of them, but at the same time the question of speed is the thing that makes up the life of the youth of this generation. He must be speedy to live in it.

We extol the great quality of freedom, and yet because we have freedom in the schools and freedom of action between the boys and girls; because we have freedom on the street; and because we have frankness and openness we challenge it and some of us say: "Let us go back to the good old days." I don't want to go back to the good old days. I am glad I live in this day and that this boyhood and this girlhood has freedom.

We talk about freedom of thinking and reasoning and yet we come to that boy and that girl who is thinking and who is reasoning, put our hand upon him and say, "Halt!" The very thing that makes him worthwhile to live in this generation is the very thing, for the most part, that you and I condemn. I would love to talk about how this youth has learned in our schools the spirit of cooperation and these other great things. As a teacher may I say this to you, don't forget this one ideal—we are not here as a group to criticize one another, to find fault with what we say, but to gain a little bit of inspiration that out of this great assembly, with these continuous meetings together, we may go back with our dynamos and our batteries all charged and ready to make that further assault on the forces of evil and bring out of these boys and girls the things that are best in their lives.

I never shall forget the night I decided to be a teacher. I wobbled about until I was twenty-three years of age deciding what I was going to do and what I would be. My father was a letter writer. I wish more fathers were letter writers! I have a letter from my father 103 pages long. I treasure it as I do few things in my life. It was written in April, 1903. He wrote me this letter and in it he said, "Son, you have decided once to be a lawyer; another time to be a preacher; another time to be a farmer. You must decide on what you are going to do. You cannot hesitate longer." I read it over and he had an argument for every single profession I had thought of. I remembered how we had walked about in the cotton fields and I had seen him reach down and pull cotton that was high as his head up to him and cut the bolls and I thrilled and said, "Oh, I want to be a farmer." Then I thought of what I could do to help clothe the people of the world. Then I went to a country town and went across the bridges of what I thought were enormous creeks, and I determined to be an engineer and an architect. Then as he carried me to hear Bob Toombs and Alexander Stephens and those men who are great in Georgia's history, I said, "I must be an orator." We had a little library of some 500 books; I read them all; and I said, "I am going to be an author; I am going to write a book." All through my life I recounted the things I had desired to be and how I had hesitated. I had never seen a great picture that I did not want to paint it; never in my life had I seen a great building but I didn't want to build it. There I was with my father's letter and I must decide what I was going to do. I laid that letter down in a chair and knelt as I had been taught to kneel to pray.

Like a flash right out of Heaven, whether in answer to prayer I know not, there came this thought: "You can do every single one of those things; you can be the lawyer, you can be the preacher, you can be the artist, you can build the bridge, you can span the great beams of the architect, you can do these very things, every one of them." How shall I do it? "Just be a teacher. Just be a teacher." I stand here tonight fifty-one years of age, and speeding across the Atlantic is Bobby Jones, my boy, coming back to his homeland as champion; four of my boys are in Paris and have alreadv exhibited more than one hundred of their works of art; others have written books; the inventor of television, or one of those inventors working with it now is one of those same boys. I wish I could tell you about them tonight!

What is this thing we call character? It is a very changeable thing. Good character is not the same in all generations. What was good character a thousand years ago might make me a reprobate tonight, and what may be good character today might make me an ingrate fifty years from now. What is character? What is the thing you and I are trying to talk about?

Character is first of all an inherited thing. I am speaking tonight like my father spoke. I am using my hands like he used his. I can see him in myself in a hundred things I do. Many of the things I think I never sat down and reasoned out. I inherited them. And we people in the south rather believe in blood you know. Character is not only force and power that we inherit. It is in this physical makeup of mind. If I had time I would go into the different processes that go to make character in what we call the correlation of eating and feeling that impels me to action; this thing that I call my emotion, my working-out; how that thing is affected by the food that I eat; how it is affected by the health that I enjoy; and how it is affected by these glands that make up the core, the permanent sources of my personality and my inspiration.

What can the schools do? They can see that every child in America has at least a fair chance with a vigorous, healthy body, and that out of that healthy body there may evolve as one of the great forces in making character, a great, strong, likable life.

What can the schools do? I think of youth in this auto-intoxicated age. The schools can bring that steadying power to the youth. No youth is better than the one we have and yet that is not as good as it ought to be. I say to every boy if he is not better than his daddy, he is criminal. The girl who is not better than her mother, not gentler, sweeter, nobler, truer, is no less criminal. The world can only be better because one generation is better than the last, and our boyhood and our girlhood must be better than our mothers and fathers. So I am not content with the achievement we have brought out.

Youth is intoxicated—no doubt about it—auto-intoxicated. It is no wonder that it is so. Suppose I could have taken the finest man who lived in this city and put him to sleep forty years ago, or even twenty years ago—had taken him out of his old buggy or his old carriage and then had let him sleep for twenty years. Then suppose I lifted him into one of our automobiles or flying machines. He may have been a judge, but he would have jumped out. That is exactly what youth has done today.

In all the history of the world, not just five, ten, fifteen, or twenty thousand years, but hundreds of thousands of years, and millions of years, we have become accustomed to a certain pace in life and all of a sudden youth was jerked up out of that pace and put into this great maelstrom of modern life. It has unsteadied him. What we need to do in the schools is to give a steadying power to life.

I read *David Copperfield* when I was twelve years of age and waded through 1200 pages to get to that critical moment when David went down on his knees, touched the fingers of Alice and told her he loved her and received her reply. Oh, how I exulted over that part! My boy goes to the moving picture show and sees everything from the beginning of the world until today in forty-five minutes and sees it all wrought out. What a change!

My forefathers lived just above Augusta, Georgia, when the Declaration of Independence was signed on the Fourth of July, 1776, and on the 26th day of August they received that wonderful news. If it had been signed yesterday we would have heard of it before it happened. So here we are in the midst of a world like that. We were brought into it so quickly that youth needs adjustment.

How are we going to give him that adjustment? We are going to bring back those things that are primitive in his life. The Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the Campfire Girls, the Y. W. C. A., the Y. M. C. A. are going to do it. So are the boys and girls who camp, hike, and go by the stars. If I had my way every boy and girl in the whole of America would attend a camp, get between the ploughshares, and learn something of the primitive things of life. In the school we have to see that this thing is done. The schools must counteract the influence in life that is disturbing the youth of our land. What can the school do? It can continue its activity program. Learning is not stimulating activity but activity does stimulate learning. If we could go into our schools, as many of us are already doing, and see that this child, whether in the kindergarten or senior high, has, as a part of that work, the doing of the thing we are studying about, that he has the initiative, that he has the opportunity to plan and to work out the things that he studies, it would mean much more rapid advancement toward the goal we seek to accomplish. My boy has become so enthusiastic about Egypt because he has lived out the life of Egypt in the sixth grade that he reads every book that touches upon Egypt, every advertisement. He reads a thousand times more because he has made the tools, laid the stage, acted the play, and worked out the plan of the whole of Egyptian civilization. As he goes along in his activity program, as he becomes interested, any idea of evil or wickedness stays out of his life and his interest centers in the thing he is doing. Character grows as a result of it. I believe in religion, I believe in the church, but one of the things that has been the greatest drawback in the building of character has been the fact that we have been content to say, "I believe, and, therefore, I am saved." We may believe all we please but salvation comes through a man's own initiative and thinking and adaptation of his life into the doing of the thing that he believes and thinks. I believe in repeating the Lord's Prayer, the Ten Commandments, the Sermon on the Mount, and memorizing beautiful poems, but the average teacher thinks he has taught character when he has done that. What that teacher needs to do is to make the opportunity for the right kind of choices, and the right mental tests, and make the opportunity to let that boy and girl work out with his own hands and in his own mind the thing that makes character on the inside.

I am not so much concerned about what the child learns. I am tremendously concerned about how he learns it and the effect of that learning on the inside of that boy or girl. That is the greatest thing, I think, in the building of character. What can the school do? The school can bring out of this activity program one great idea. It can learn a great lesson—that schools cannot educate children by themselves. We only have them five and a half to six hours a day, we only have them some 800 hours in a year, we do not get them until they are ruined or made, and then we turn them loose in the most formative period of their life. Still we think we can educate children! The school can not do it alone. The home is educating the child, the church is educating the child, the community is educating the child.

The most amazing thing today in all America is that superintendents of schools will wait until a certain Monday in September and call together forty little children and put them under the care of a teacher who has never seen the mother, the grandmother, nor the great-grandmother, who has never seen the house in which they live, does not even know whether it is an apartment house or a dwelling, has never seen the backyard or anything of their environment, and say to that teacher, "Take these children and educate them." How in the name of common sense can they do it? It cannot be done! What that teacher can do is to say: "I am going to do my part," and every teacher in the city of Atlanta, I am thankful I can say tonight, has not only cooperated, but one hundred percent will say, "I will visit one hundred percent the children of my school and my class during what we call Normal Week and learn the background of those children."

What can the school do to make character? It can put its hand in the hand of the father and mother and say: "I am going to work with you." I say to my teachers that if there are forty-five children and forty-five mothers come to them, each one as mad as a wet hen, take courage, it is a great thing because they are at least interested.

Get in touch with the home life of the child. That is what you teachers can do. See that each child has a job. See that he gets a job at the home, see that he has a job in the school. Any teacher in America who has a child without a specific job in the classroom ought to close the door, resign, and quit. The child is not going to do anything unless he realizes there is some specific thing to do in cooperation with his teacher, that "that is my job." When I was six years of age I was assigned a job of separating the cows and the calves at home. If I did it well I got sugar in my milk; if I didn't do it I was denied sugar three days. It was an obvious situation. There were many negroes, any of whom could have separated the cows and the calves better than I, but my father and mother knew I needed a job. When I was seven I was assigned the job of picking up chips; when I was eight milking was added to it; when I was nine, feeding the hogs. I had responsibility. What the school can do is to encourage the child to have a job and to work.

I have said very little about lying, swindling, and cheating. Why? I do not believe in talking about them. If a man tells young folks how bad they are and what other folks are doing, some kid is going to be sitting out there and saying, "By George! Aren't those young folks having a good time! Here I have been behaving myself but I am going to get out and do it!" It is bad psychology, poor suggestion. Put him to work. Get his interest. Give him an activity program.

The school can teach the child character through the most beautiful thing there is in all the world. Have you ever watched a little baby in a cradle at six weeks old pick up his hands and commence to play with his clothes, or watched him on the floor as he commenced to play? Have you ever watched a colt gamboling on the green, or a kitten playing with its mother's tail? Haven't you learned that the greatest thing in the world in the making of character is the free play life of the child? Teachers need to get on the football field, the baseball field, with the boys and girls, and in some particular thing, not only show interest but take part, and they will always get cooperation.

May I tell you just one story? I know you will be interested because everybody is interested in Bobby. Bobby Jones came into my class the first day. I asked him to decline *tuba*. I was teaching Latin. He folded his arms and looked out the window. I said, "Decline *tuba*." He didn't say anything. I said, "Decline *tuba*." He still folded his arms and looked out the window. When the class was over, I said before they went out: "I will not put a zero down against Jones today. He is an intelligent looking chap; there must be something wrong that he didn't know his lesson. I will give him another chance." And as he went out I said to him, "Bob, I am not going to keep you in but I would like for you to come back here and talk to me about your Latin this afternoon or some other afternoon this week." He came back that afternoon. I said, "I am mighty glad to see you back here. What are you interested in?"

He said, "I am interested in golf." We sat there and talked about golf for fifteen or twenty minutes and his eyes just literally glowed. When we got through talking I said, "Bob, why didn't you say something about your Latin lesson? I would not have asked you and embarrassed you if I had known you were not prepared."

He said, "To tell you the truth, I came here to your high school because I thought you didn't have Latin, and then my father found out you did have Latin. I said, 'It's all right, you can send me to class but I never shall open my mouth,' and I never shall."

I said, "Couldn't I go by and ask your father if he wouldn't let you drop Latin?"

He said, "I will be mighty glad if you will."

I said, "I will go by and talk a little golf to him and then ask him to let you drop your Latin. But then," I said, "it is rather a shame about your daddy. I don't know whether he would let you drop it or not. He evidently hasn't got much sense from what you said."

"Who said my daddy hasn't got much sense?"

"You did."

"How?"

"Just a minute ago, you said you were fourteen years old and your father was thirty-eight and you just told him you were not going to take Latin and you wouldn't do it, and of course a man thirty-eight years of age ought to have more sense than a boy of fourteen years old. It is just too bad."

He said, "I'll take your Latin."

It was his interest in golf—he was occupied in playing and it was the interest that I was willing to show that accomplished the result. The teacher that can enter into the play interests of the child always meets with response.

May I close with this last thought—what can the school do? The school can show the incarnation of character. That is the biggest thing in all this world. I never have any trouble believing in incarnation. There are some things in the Bible I can't get along with very well, but I never have any trouble about that because I never believed anything I didn't see any economy in. You can talk to me about the Ten Commandments and they do not mean much, but when I see somebody live the Ten Commandments and when I see somebody who lives the Sermon on the Mount, it strikes home.

Be more careful in selecting teachers. I have examined over one hundred questionnaires sent out by over one hundred cities in America, and they give ninety-two percent to the teacher's training, to the teachers college, to the teacher's experience, to the teacher's summer studies, and eight percent is given to the teacher's character. May I say this to you, that the school has the greatest opportunity to build character it ever had in the history of the world, if you as superintendents will select those men who have character and who live it, and who in their heart of hearts have implanted the thing they want that boy or girl to have.

These are the things that the schools can do. Look out and lift up your eyes to the twenty-four million children and let us say as teachers of this land that that boy or girl whom I have for forty-five minutes, even for half a year, shall receive from me that inspiration of life and example that will flow out and be contagious and will live and be glorified in him.

WHAT THE HOME CAN DO IN CHARACTER AND RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

RANDALL J. CONDON, FRIENDSHIP, ME.

I come before you tonight without any preparation except a deep conviction born of all the years since I can remember that the home is the most important educational institution in America or in any other land.

I subscribe to all that Mr. Sutton has said about the importance of the school, and I am grateful for the opportunity for these forty years and more to have been connected as a teacher and superintendent with the work of helping develop character in young people. Beyond the work of the school lies that of the home, and if it is not well done, then the school shall do little to develop the right kind of character in the boys and girls who are sent to us from the homes that are weak and inefficient in their parents.

A hundred years ago Frederick Shafer said in his *Education of Man,* "Only the quiet, secluded sanctuary of the home can give back to us the welfare of mankind." And a little earlier Thomas Jefferson said, "The waters shall ever be what are the fountains from which they flow." These two fundamental statements are as true today as they were a century ago.

I come to you as the representative of the homes of America, representing the great organization of a million and a half parents and teachers, to pledge to the schools the cooperation of the homes of America in the one common task in looking after the welfare of the children, in making clear that education must be based upon religion, and that morality and the development of fine character and worthy citizenship is the greatest piece of work, the most necessary thing in which the schools and the homes can engage.

Let me read you this letter from Thomas Jefferson to Martha, the older of his two children, after the mother had died. I visited his home at Monticello several years ago. I made a pilgrimage that I might see the home in which this great man lived, the home he had created as an expression of himself, the home in which his children had been nurtured. He retired there from the Presidency, rich in the experiences of life, to play with these children and grandchildren, to live with them in order that he might help teach and shape them for their part in a great American Democracy. Somehow I felt the spirit of the great sage of Monticello, somehow I felt the benediction of the man who had lived and wrought there.

When the mother had died and these two girls were left to him, this letter was written while he was the representative of America to the Court of France.

> You must assume the responsibility of a mother. When she arrives, she will become a precious charge in your hands. The difference is in your age and your common loss of a mother will put that responsibility off on you. Teach her above all things to be good because without that we can neither be valued by others nor set any value on ourselves. Teach her to be always true. No vice is so mean as the want of truth, and at the same time so useless. Teach her never to be angry. Anger only

> serves to torment ourselves, defeat our friends, and alienate their esteem. Teach her industry and occupation to useful pursuits. I will venture to assure you if you inculcate those in her mind you will make her a happy being in herself, a most estimable friend to you, and precious to all of earth. In teaching her these dispositions of mind, you will be the more fixing them in yourself and render yourself dearer to all your acquaintances. Practise them then, my dear, without ceasing. If ever you find yourself in difficulty or doubt how to express yourself, do what is right and you will find it the easiest way out of the difficulty.

I read the letters, hundreds of them, that Thomas Jefferson wrote to his children who were at Charlottesville while he was in Philadelphia and while he was in France, breathing the spirit of companionship, asking them to watch the coming of the birds, to report to him when a certain bird arrived there, and he would let them know when that bird sang its note at Philadelphia, asking them to inform him when the crocuses came up and the daffodils, and he would tell them when he first saw them coming through the earth at Philadelphia; entering into their life in every way. I would say what the home can do is for the parents to live with their children; to have fine ideals of service but to enter into their understanding that the children and parents together may live their life.

I believe the home is the greatest educational institution in America because it is a living institution. The school work even at its best must be somewhat formal; the church even at its best may somehow do some of the preaching, but formal teaching and preaching is never likely to result in those fine qualities of character that come out of living, and living with older people, making sacrifices. Oh, I am grateful that as a boy back in an humble home in Maine it was necessary for me to undergo hardship, undergo something of sacrifice, to enter into the spirit of that family and do it under a mother who loved her children so much that she reproved them when they would go worng, and she called them back to their line of duty and of reverence and devotion to God. These things I remember with greatest satisfaction, and now in the sunset of life it is one of the great joys of my life that I can spend these years in that same home in which I was born, and that I can still feel that mother love and that influence. As the sun shines in through the western window at eventide, I think of that mother love, and how when the evening came the family would gather about the great family Bible and as the mother read to us from the Word of God, we all knelt while she commended our souls to God, and never a day was so busy in that home that first of all we did not kneel with that mother while she asked God's blessing and gave thanks for the day.

In the twenty-five million homes of America I wonder how many of them are lacking the kind of life and teaching that will send their children into the schools prepared for the instruction which the schools shall give and receiving them back from the school to reinforce and unite with them in doing those things which make for life and service. I rejoice that in the countryside there are still these devoted homes which are assuming the responsibility for the rearing of children.

What can the home do? The home can assume its full responsibility and if it shirks that responsibility there is no other institution under our form of life and government that can make up for its deficiency. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers stands ready to unite with the teachers of America, combining the home and the school, that together and with that partnership we may work out this problem of saving America, because parents and teachers are working together for the salvation of the children.

I don't know that I ever had any tribute or recognition which came to me in all my life that seemed more precious to me than a sentence that my little daughter dropped when she was leaving home after having graduated from college. She was going from Cincinnati to New York to engage in the student secretary work for the National Young Women's Christian Association. One of our directors said to her, "Well, Catherine, I expect your mother will miss you very much when you are gone." She said this, "Yes, but I think Father will miss me just as much for when we are together all our work becomes play." That little daughter now has a home of her own and just a year ago there was born into it a little boy, and I received the message that Randall Condon Foster had come upon the 3rd of April. I had expected him to be a girl. I had had no idea and I was so surprised when I saw that name attached to him, for I had never thought that my daughter would name her baby, if he came, for her father. I believe that we need to begin very early with these children. They may not understand all we do but as the years stretch on there will come something of our teachings and the meaning of the things that we do to them and for them that will have a tremendous influence upon their lives.

Last April 2nd, just the day before my grandson's birthday, I left for the West to take part in the state and national conventions of the parent-teacher associations, and I took a half day in the morning and went up to their home that I might celebrate with him and his mother and father, his first birthday, a one-year-old boy, rosy-cheeked, smiling and happy, facing the future with all its possibilities. He had his first breakfast that morning sitting at the table with the grown folks. He sat in his high chair. I watched him while his mother gave him his bath before breakfast. We had the same breakfast, starting out with orange juice. I drank mine from a glass and he from a bottle—it took him a little longer to drink it than it did me, and that is about the only difference. Then we had the same cereal. And we had a happy time together sitting there. After his breakfast he went back to his little crib and he was standing in it reaching up looking at me, and in the lapel of my coat was the life membership button of the National Education Association. He reached up to it, and wanted to take it off. I said, "Would you like to have one, little chap?" And he smiled back. I said, "I think it would be a good thing for me to give you for your first birthday present."

I went on in the afternoon to Washington and the first thing I did was to go to Mr. Crabtree's office and say, "I want to take out a life membership in the great National Education Association for my grandson, Randall

Condon Foster. You may send him his certificate, but please give me an emblem of life membership for I want to wear his and I will give him mine."

Then I went upstairs one flight further to the office of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers and said, "I want to make my grandson, Randall Condon Foster, a life member of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. You may send to him his certificate of membership but give me his emblem of life membership, the key, that I may send mine to him and that I may wear his, for I want the inspiration that comes from his youth, and I would like somehow to transmit to him, if I could, something of the experience that goes with the emblem that I have worn."

Now his father told me that a little later he had received his first research bulletin from the National Education Association and he added this, "He has already begun to devour it." Bishop McDowell says I ought to send him a questionnaire!

I am writing him a letter that his mother will read to him when he becomes a little older when I have probably passed off the stage, saying to him from my experience what it means to be connected with these two great national organizations that have in their keeping through the school and the home the welfare of America, and hoping that somehow this early act of his grandfather's will have an influence upon his life in the years to come. I am not particularly concerned whether he should be a teacher or not—that is for him to decide. If he has the ability, the quality, and inclination I hope he will cast his life along the lines that I am sure will give the greatest satisfaction, but in whatever field of work his future years may be cast I want him to realize that in this Association are great opportunities for service, for citizens as well as for teachers, and that parents and teachers alike must conserve the schools and homes.

These are some of the things that the homes can do for children, starting early, loving them, for that is the most fundamental thing in school or in home.

In my little hometown is the schoolhouse my mother taught in 79 years ago, and she was a mother then. She left her little boy with a grandmother and she took the little girl, five years old, by the hand and led her for a mile and a half along that country road to teach in that little brick schoolhouse. Then I went to it to school and later while I was in college I taught there, and it has very precious memories. Meantime in the process of consolidation the little school was abandoned and it looked very shabby. The bushes had grown up about it, the windows were out, the roof was beginning to fall in—the brick walls alone were intact. They hadn't changed in 79 years, for they were built upon one of the Maine granite ledges. Somehow it seemed to me that this ought to be saved. So I asked the town one year at the town meeting whether they would authorize the school committee to sell the schoolhouse and they voted to authorize the school committee to sell the schoolhouse to the best advantage. Well, I offered the school committee what I thought was a fair and reasonable price for the building for the use

I wanted to put it to and then as long as I had seen there was some value in it, somebody else thought it would make a good garage and he offered quite a good deal more, and somebody else thought it would make a good oil filling station and he offered still more, and somebody wanted a tearoom and she offered still more, and then the test of the school committee was this. They said, "The town has authorized us to sell this to the best advantage. If Randall Condon wants this as a memorial to his mother, a teacher-parent, and to preserve it for our town as a community center, it shall be his." And so we restored it. We shingled it and had a fireplace built in the end of it, and my brother made fireside seats where people could gather and sit in comfort, and he and I together built one of the old-fashioned desks just as they used to be in the country school, as a memorial. Then we painted the floor and Mrs. Condon made chintz curtains to hang in the window with a view to prettiness, and then one day just before we were going to dedicate it for the community welfare, for the homes, for the parents and for the children, because that was why I had bought it, I was painting the blackboard, the same blackboard upon which I had learned to subtract two from four, and probably found the answer to be three; the same blackboard upon which, when a college lad, I had taught the children to spell c-a-t and then discovered how foolish it was and rubbed it out and found it just as easy to teach them the word cat as it was to teach it c-a-t, cat—the same blackboard, and I was puttying up the holes there to make it look a little bit smoother, but I came to one place in it I didn't putty up. Because as I was looking through it I came to these words, or these letters, written by some child who had come to that blackboard—"l-o-v-", and no more. I am not sure whether the teacher caught him at that point and stopped him or whether he thought that was all that was necessary to spell the word. Anyway, I left "l-o-v" on that blackboard as the symbol of what every school and every home in America must have if they are to teach character and religion in the light of life that shall function in terms of character and citizenship.

Then we gathered the children and parents together on one beautiful bright September day. The children sat about the floor, the grown people sat on the chairs, and the little girl five years old that my mother had taken with her to school had braided an old-fashioned rug and it was on the floor just in front of the fireplace. There was one of the older boys, a year or two older, who was there, and I gave him the privilege of lighting the fire on the hearth of the fireplace, and we came away from the schoolhouse not only with the embers burning in the fireplace and the hearth, but with a warm glowing in our own hearts, a feeling that somehow we had exalted life and service, community welfare, parents and teachers, school and home, and that out of it all should come a finer and better type of American citizens, with kindness in their hearts and with gentleness in their lives.

Sometime ago, I wrote this tribute to my mother and if I may I will read it as a tribute to all mothers:

To my mother, who taught her children the deep things of life—duty, honor, truth, courage, faith, hope, love of home and of country, reverence for God, for every country and for all His loyal creatures obedience and devotion, sincerity and simplicity, patience and perseverence, selfdenial and selfreliance, kindness and helpfulness, contentment while striving to attainment, joy in service and satisfaction in work well done.

With a culture not learned in school, for her island home afforded but little in the way of schools, but with that richer culture that comes from companionship with a few great books, from communion with God and Nature, and from a life well lived, to difficulties faced and to problems solved with unconquered and unconquerable spirit she taught us by what she did, to do, and inspired us by what she was, to become.

And only so shall the parents or teachers of America develop character as they teach children to do by what they do, and inspire them to become by what they are.

WHAT THE CHURCH CAN DO IN CHARACTER AND RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

REV. WILLIAM F. McDOWELL, BISHOP, METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH, WASHINGTON, D. C.

I am rather vitally related to the school teaching business. My father taught school in this state when he was fifteen years old and earned the money for the first pair of boots in our family. Prior to that we had gone barefoot or worn brogans. He married an Ohio school teacher. For a limited number of years I was the nominal head of a university in Colorado.

My first word is going to be one of criticism. I do not like this audience. I do not think it is well made up for the discussion of these three topics—What can the School do? What can the Home do? What can the Church do? I would have four topics, shorten each address, including my own, and I would have had the audience made of four groups, all packed together so that you couldn't tell which was which, and I would have had one group made of teachers, one group of distinguished parents who are not teachers, and one group made of ministers of all kinds of churches, and one group made of editors of all kinds of papers. I would have raised, in addition to the three questions we are speaking of, a fourth question—What can the Press of America do to help make the character of America?

First of all I think the church can, and should contribute to this influence for the making of character an amount of understanding which I fear they are not contributing. I do not believe, and I may now confess the sins of the body for which I speak, that we have quite an adequate understanding of the problem of character making in modern American life. I doubt if we quite understand the difficulties that attend public school teaching. We can contribute if we will an amount of understanding that does not exist. That is my statement to the church that is not primarily here but is only here because many of you belong to it. In the contribution of this element of understanding on the part of the church you can make a large contribution.

My second suggestion is that the churches can make a large contribution in the way of appreciation. If I were asked to name the first quality that I would require in a teacher it would be an accurate sense of the value of a child, of every child, and especially of the young child. The churches can help in contributing that sense of appreciation of the value of childhood. A new word has come into our modern speech. It is that term *personality*. My judgment is that one great revelation of religion that lies just ahead is the revelation of the value of human personality—something of an understanding of human life as Jesus Christ thinks of it. I do not mean we are going to take an idealistic view. That is not it. Human nature is not precious because it is perfect. It is precious because of what it may become. It doth not yet appear what we shall be, but we know that when He shall appear we shall be like Him, for we shall see Him as He is. It is that sense of the value of personality which, speaking in terms of education, would mean a drawing out of the personality, making all possible of it. The church must help to make that emphasis to an extent to which it has not done.

The church, in the next place, can make a very genuine contribution as to the uses of truth. There are a good many uses of truth. There is the scientific use; there is the purely practical use that we witness in invention; there is a very real commercial use of truth. In that very characteristic American story, *Silas Lapham,* written by an Ohio man, the late William Dean Howells, the hero of the story defined education as the training of a man in the power to exploit the community for his own benefit. That is to say, he taught man so that he could work the community. Everyone who has thought accurately, whether he has thought deeply or not, knows that that is not the highest use of truth. One who has thought seriously of truth, as it applies to human nature, knows that that Great Siren of the Soul, whom we call the Great Teacher, said, not for Himself alone, not for those alone who should be ministers of His in pulpits, but for all of those who use truth in its application to life, "Ye shall know the Truth, and the Truth shall make you free"—free from fear, free from bondage, free from the things that destroy human life, free from the things that keep human life from reaching its highest levels. The church can contribute, please God it may, a new and keener sense of the significance and value of truth.

The churches also can contribute a real sense of the relative values in life. Honorable William Russell, one time governor of Massachusetts, said a thing that the church ought never forget, and it is one of the things that the church can contribute to this process of making character. He said, "There is an everlasting difference between making a living and making a life." In these days when making a living is so stressed and emphasized and means so much to us, the church can contribute a sense of values that places emphasis upon life as better than living, as the thing for which living exists.

I had an experience on this subject of values which perhaps, without impropriety, I may quote to you. I was located at the University of Denver when silver was demonetized and the bottom dropped out of Colorado prosperity temporarily. I was in Chicago trying to see the World Fair. One Friday morning I received word from my wife that perhaps I had better come home and then like an optimist she said, "Maybe we can go back again a little bit later." So I left Chicago on Friday night, and arrived in Denver on Sunday morning with exactly seventy cents in my pocket, which indicates that it was time for me to be home. I went out to my home in the suburbs, greeted my family, and we had breakfast. We had prayers together. Then I began to inquire about conditions. It was a sorry recital. Bank after bank had closed. Man after man had financially failed; concern after concern had gone to the wall. Then rather timidly I ventured to ask about my own small savings, for I had saved a little bit, all the more precious because there was so little of it, and I had invested it. My wife as kindly as possible explained to me what had happened, and I went upstairs alone into the great bedroom with two windows opening toward the rising sun and two opening toward the eternal mountains, and I took down from the shelf in the closet a tin box that was locked—locked with a rubber band. I opened it and took out from the box certain securities and mortgages. They didn't mean much in value or in aggregate I mean, but the more worthless they were the more beautifully they were printed. I spread them out and looked at them and had the feeling that a man has when he drops from the fortieth story of a building in an express elevator and is moved to ask the conductor to take him back to enable him to pick up what he has lost somewhere along the way. I folded these certificates up and put them back in the box, locked it again with the rubber band, and laid it back on the shelf.

Then I did what I had never done before, never have done since, and shall never need to do again, because I got that lesson once and for all. I took down a roll that was done up in newspaper and tied with a string. I untied the string and unrolled the roll, and spread out on the bed three diplomas that I had been permitted to get in two Christian institutions. They were written in Latin, and I was a university chancellor and could not read Latin anymore. Of course I understand why Latin is a dead language. It has been studied to death, and I helped to do it. Though I could not read these diplomas I could read the names that were signed to them and I knew what those names stood for. Presently I laid the diplomas back on the shelf—and that is the last time I have seen them—and walked out of that room like a lord. All my courage came back, all my hope was restored, all my sense of worth and personality quickened; for it seemed to me that morning, it seems to me tonight, that those diplomas represented the kind of value over which tumbling banks and failing concerns had absolutely no effect; that they were rich with the value that would last "Till the sun grows cold and the leaves of the Judgment Book unfold." I walked the streets of that stricken city that week and man after man said, "Chancellor, did you get caught in the storm?" And I said, "Not I. I lost a few things overboard but the storm never touched me."

I learned what that great Soul meant when He said, "A man's life consisteth not in the abundance of the things he possesses." It is for the church, in my judgment, among other things, to give back to the world in this day that sense of value and to make it, with your cooperation, quick and significant and vital in human life.

It is also within the province of the church to help the homes, the schools, and the press to keep the soul of the world alive in this materialistic day. It can help it by making emphatic in this new generation and in every generation those magnificent words a great English schoolman made the basis of his whole theory of education. I refer to Thomas Arnold, whose work at Rugby College was based on the double principle of an inquiring love of truth and a devoted love of goodness. The church can help prepare the homes and the schools, if it will, for modern human life.

The church can offer to the world the living definition of what we mean by character; for we get our great definitions not in terms of the dictionary, but in terms of life. If I were asked to define certain words I could. If I were asked to define the word "mother" I could, and if I should repeat what the dictionary says, you would say, "That is all very well for the dictionary but evidently the maker of that dictionary did not know my mother." If Dr. Condon could bring here that lovely mother of whom he has spoken, or if I could bring here a lovely young woman whom I have not seen for more than threescore years now, every one of you would see a different figure, but every one of you would understand if I should say that was a mother. Personality defines the term.

If I were asked to define the term "preacher" I could. If instead of defining "preacher" I could bring here that plain country preacher that brought you to Christ, or one of those simple great souls whose lives were touched as with a life of culture, such supermen as Phillips Brooks, Matthew Simpson, or others whose names leap to my lips, and you would be caught up in the tidal rush of their speech into the third heaven and see things that it is not lawful for me to utter, and I should say to you, "That is a preacher," you would understand. Personality defines the term.

If I were asked to define the word "doctor" I could, but if I should repeat what the dictionary says you would say, "That is all very well for a dictionary, but evidently the maker of the dictionary did not know my family physician." If I could bring here the very finest character that the advance of forty years has brought to the surface, William McClure, a country doctor of the old school, and you should see him battling all the night for the life of Belle Saunders' husband; and in the morning when the fever broke, go out and throw his waistcoat one way and his coat the other and try with his twisted legs to dance the Highland Fling just for sheer joy that a man's life had been saved, and could say to you, "Now that is a doctor," everyone of you would see a different figure. Personality defines the term.

If I were asked to define the word "character" I could, but if I should recite what the dictionary says you would go out saying, "There must be a better definition." But if I could bring here before you, as maybe I can by the gift of your imagination and spiritual insight, a Teacher who wore sandals on His feet, a seamless robe upon His person, and taught the lowly the way of life and spake as no man spake before, that went about doing good; if I should stand with Him here a moment and say to you, "He is the definition of what we mean by character," you would all see the same figure and all understand and I trust would vow together, as I should want to vow with you, that to the end of our lives we would work upon this priceless human material to present it at last without spot or wrinkle or blemish in this likeness and image.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

HON. MYERS Y. COOPER, GOVERNOR OF OHIO

Ohio esteems it a high privilege as well as a very great honor to entertain the Sixty-eighth Convention of the National Education Association. As her Chief Executive I bid you a most cordial welcome to our state and to our capital city. Your annual gatherings rightfully attract national and international attention since they give emphasis to educational advancement and progress. While we wish fully to perform our duty as host, we are not unmindful that we will receive from this body far more than we possibly can give. Our people believe in education. You are in the midst of friends. I extend to you in their name the fullest possible measure of hospitality during your stay within our borders. We yield to no other commonwealth in appreciation of the benefits of universal education and of the idealism in education for which this Association stands. We are proud to state to you that no child in Ohio, however remotely located, lives beyond the privilege of a thorough secondary education, and that in our system of instruction equalization of educational opportunity is an accomplished fact. We have, however, the characteristic American attitude of advancement toward new goals of achievement, and we hail your coming and your deliberations among us as calculated to more clearly define the educational objectives for the immediate future.

We are proud of our 41,000 teachers in Ohio. Our state does not regret them one penny—indeed we wish we might make it more—of the teachers' salary, approximating $54,000,000 annually, because we believe we make no finer investment than that which has to do with the preparation of our youth for happy and useful lives. Hence it is that the taxpayers of our state dig deep in their pockets to the extent of $125,000,000 annually for elementary and secondary education alone.

We believe in education. Without education we would not survive the perils that beset our nation. It is our fixed conviction that education is the chief and essential means by which the permanency of a democratic society may be assured. This is the day when "the man who knows" is in demand,

and so challenging are the responsibilities of the hour that the conservation of human value is paramount to every other consideration. Unpreparedness is the greatest tragedy of life. Its toll is taken in priceless time, its compensation in unrewarded effort.

The teachers of America hold the destiny of our youth and of our country in their hands. More and more are they called upon to marshall their resources in the realm of ideas and thus develop and mold the character and tendencies of the youth.

The safety and security of our nation will be found in a mobilization of her resources in the realm of ideas and their utilization in defending our national heritage, which represents the toils and sufferings, the tears and heroisms, the sacrifices and martyrdoms of other days. The need of America today is for this type of leadership as evidenced in the counsels of your great organization.

An outstanding characteristic of Ohio is that she produces more of everything than she can use, even school teachers. No doubt there are many teachers in this presence who were born in Ohio. To you, our native sons and daughters who have returned for this convention, we need not say that Ohio is the best state in the Union. It would be hard to convince you otherwise. To the thousands of others who are here, let me say that you will find our state at least not outranked in hospitality and the desire to make you feel perfectly at home and have a thoroughly good time.

Our people have been planning and working for this convention so as to make you comfortable and happy while you are here. We want you to accept our courtesies in the same spirit in which they are extended.

It is our hope that when you leave Ohio you will carry away with you many pleasant memories of a profitable convention and a disposition to return again at an early date when you can stay much longer.

WORDS OF GREETING

JAMES J. THOMAS, MAYOR, COLUMBUS, OHIO

I am very happy this morning on behalf of a warm-hearted community to extend to you our sincere greetings and welcome to the Capital City of this great Buckeye State. Columbus is just a little bit more than a capital city. It is one of the leading educational centers of the middlewest, also growing in importance as an industrial and commercial community.

The key is the symbol of hospitality, but the key of Columbus has already unlocked the hearts and hands of the whole community which bids you welcome and hopes that you will enjoy to the fullest the freedom of our city. If there is anything that we can do that will add to your comfort or to your happiness, command us.

WORDS OF GREETING

J. L. CLIFTON, STATE DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION FOR OHIO

As director of education of the State of Ohio it gives me pleasure to welcome to our state, on behalf of the 42,000 teachers, the delegates and friends of education to Columbus this week. We are anxious for you to know us better; we are anxious for you to know something of what Ohio is trying to do for the advancement of education and for the welfare of the boys and girls of our state. We cannot help but remember that all our program of education directs itself toward the welfare of our children, and in behalf of the boys and girls we hope that you will bring to us something that we can take in turn to them.

I hope that the delegates and friends of education will visit us this week. I hope that they will come to the story that we have told by exhibition in the Elks' Home on East Broad Street. We have written our story there for you to read, and we cordially invite you to come and see if it is well told.

The ladies of the convention are always welcome at the Elks' Home. We have opportunity for your entertainment there, and you will find a place to rest and recuperate. We hope you will come and enjoy our offered hospitality.

We are trying to do the best we can. You never gave us an opportunity before and so we are just doing it the way we find we can for the first time. When you come back again to a National Education Association Convention at Columbus we will know how to do it better.

We are glad to have you and we welcome you to the State of Ohio and to the City of Columbus.

WORDS OF GREETING

J. G. COLLICOTT, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COLUMBUS, OHIO

On behalf of the teachers of Columbus, 1500 of them, on behalf of the pupils of the schools of Columbus, 48,000, and on behalf of the parents and citizens of Columbus, approximately 300,000, I am authorized and directed to say to you that for your delight we are all here. Our cordial welcome for you we wish to express in the singing of our teacher choruses, in the singing of pupil choruses, in the elementary, junior and senior high schools. For you our high-school bands are eager to play, for you our courtesy luncheons arranged during the week, and we are delighted to have the opportunity of visiting with you as you go as the guests of the 10,000 teachers of Ohio on Wednesday at twelve oclock. We hope to take as our special guests of honor each visiting teacher outside of Ohio. An Ohio teacher wishes to have the honor of serving as individual host to each of the 8,000 visitors from outside of the state. For you we have planned the interesting trips about the city and in certain interesting sections of our state; for you we have planned the great educational pageant this evening and we hope you will be on hand in good time at the stadium. There is plenty of room for everybody. You will see someone representing Mr. McGuffy as he looked in his lifetime, also Horace Mann, and those great educational characters from Ohio. You will have an opportunity to appreciate what their contribution has been.

We also have planned to join with you on the Fourth of July in celebrating our great Independence Day. Our flag drill will occupy the entire playing field of the stadium. We have capacity for 75,000 people, and a chorus of 3500 will sing patriotic songs.

This is our welcome to you. We hope in the future as you recount the cities that have honored themselves by attempting to the best of their ability to honor this great educational organization that you will be able to recall the shout of victory that is always given by the boys and girls in our Ohio colleges, and as you listen to the names of the cities and states that have entertained in proper fashion this great organization you will recall those three great shouts of victory—"Yea, Ohio! Yea, Ohio! Yea, Ohio!"

VITAL VALUES IN EDUCATION

E. RUTH PYRTLE, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, AND PRINCIPAL, BANCROFT SCHOOL, LINCOLN, NEBR.

The challenge to the profession of teaching has never been stronger than it is today. The problems for solution have never been more important nor more numerous. The zeal of the profession to meet the challenge has never been greater. Teachers—individually and in organized groups—are devoting themselves vigorously and intelligently to the solution of the intricate problems in education.

The privilege which you have given me this year, as president of this great organization, to see the "field" in action—to get a "close-up" by visits into the field—has been highly inspirational. I could wish nothing better for *all* the children of America than to have them enjoy the opportunities and benefits that I have seen provided for children in some of our best schools where I have been privileged to visit.

The theme chosen for this sixty-eighth convention of the National Education Association is "Vital Values in Education." These values will be discussed by speakers of national and international achievement under the subtopics:

1. Wise use of leisure or the art of living as a vital value in education
2. Creative learning as a vital value in education
3. The international point of view as a vital value in education
4. Character and religion as a vital value in education

I shall briefly use three illustrations of vital values that need constant emphasis in our schools. Were there time, these few illustrations could be increased to cover others such as health, citizenship, recreation, music, social studies, and character growth.

First, let us emphasize the need for freeing intelligence. Our much loved educational philosopher, Dr. John Dewey, warns us against that type of school, that "has literally been dressed out, with hand-me-down garments—with intellectual suits which other people have worn." Dr. Dewey describes in this sentence the teacher who follows mechanically the course of study waiting for a supervisor or a superintendent to tell him what to do next. This traditional type of teacher is reducing the activity of the child's mind to a docile and passive taking in of the material presented—in short to memorizing with simply incidental use of judgment and of active search. It is encouraging that more and more teachers are reversing this in practise and leading pupils to think, weigh, measure, reason, make judgments, and let memory become the byproduct, rather than the main objective of the day's program. Dr. Dewey says that in our schools we have freed individuality in many modes of outer expression without freeing intelligence, which is the vital spring and guarantee of all these expressions. It does not take new or different equipment from that which we now have in nearly all schools, but the use of the equipment or environment in a more profitable manner. For example, he says, take the child outofdoors widening and organizing his experience with reference to the world in which he lives; let him pursue nature study as a vital observation of forces working under their natural conditions; let him observe plants and animals growing in their own homes, instead of merely discussing dead specimens.

We believe it is fundamental that we have a sense of vital values in education and put emphasis on first things, *first*.

Henry Turner Bailey emphasizes that nature is the inexhaustible reservoir of suggestion for all science—the trees, the birds, the butterflies, the moths, the clouds, and the stars never cease to entertain and to bless all who have learned to love them. He says when we are wiser, we will run the buses of the board of education not to bring rural children into city schools but to take city children into the country that they may learn to know and love God's first revelation to man, and feel at home in the natural world because they are well acquainted with it.

Which is the greater tragedy, for a child to live in a crowded city in a home and school environment that almost prevents his chance for appreciation of the real values of life, or the child living in the rural school environment—perhaps surrounded by the beauty of God's great outofdoors—and yet not appreciating it because of having "eyes that see not and ears that hear not?"

Once I asked a twelve-year-old boy about the scarlet tanager, which was nesting within a stone's throw of his school. This modern rural schoolhouse was located in beautiful river woods, a locality wellknown to ornithologists as one of the best in the United States for making a large bird list. The boy knew nothing about the tanager. He said his teacher thought his class did not have time to study birds; they had so much arithmetic and geography "to get."

Bishop William A. Quayle once said he would like to add a beatitude to the list, to read "Blessed are those who have *eyes* to see and *use* them." The beatitude I would add is "Blessed are those who *help* others to see."

These blessed surely include the classroom teachers of America who have the vision of putting the emphasis on "first things *first*" and put that into practise in everyday classroom instruction. Fortunate, indeed, is the child who is associated with that type of teacher!

One of your favorite authors in his "God of the Open Air" expresses this philosophy of vital values:

> These are the things I prize
> And hold of dearest worth:
> Light of the sapphire skies,
> Peace of the silent hills,
> Shelter of forests, comfort of the grass,
> Music of birds, murmur of little rills,
> Shadows of clouds that swiftly pass,
> And, after showers,
> The smell of flowers
> And of the good brown earth,—
> And best of all, along the way,
> Friendship and mirth.

Second, the entire teaching profession needs to be enlisted in training for the wise use of leisure. Recognizing that this can be accomplished only through the enlistment of the entire profession, the Association has this year appointed a National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life and forty-eight state commissions to stimulate and lead the movement; but the real work will be effectively done only when each teacher catches the vision.

Teachers, better than anyone else, can interpret what was meant in the following statement, which was sent to each member, setting forth the purpose and plan of the Association's movement for the enrichment of adult life:

The purpose is for the teaching profession to promote plans for the wise use of leisure, or avocational efficiency, just as it has been promoting vocational efficiency.

The plan of organization is for the National Education Association to take the initiative and assign to the Department of Adult Education the chief responsibility for organizing and carrying the work forward; to seek the cooperation of the American Federation of Labor, the United States Chamber of Commerce, the American Legion, the American Bar Association, the American Medical Association, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and other national agencies; to appoint a committee in each state; and to provide for contacts with all industrial, civic, fraternal, and religious organizations. The Executive Committee of the Adult Department, together with twenty-five additional members, will constitute the National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life, and a group in each state of from fifteen to fifty members will constitute the state commission.

The work of the department and commissions is to conduct investigations; to determine the best plans for recreation and for work during extra hours for the enrichment of life; to outline problems for investigation for state commissions; to call on colleges to conduct lines of research; to call on the best thinkers in the nation for suggestions; to send out to the state commissions conclusions and recommendations; and to secure funds from individuals and organizations for the work of the commission. The work of the state commission is to follow out the plans of the national commission, both as to investigations and as to the distribution of information; and to initiate plans for securing the cooperation of teachers and citizens in every community in the state.

The old theory, that people do not learn after twenty-five has been exploded by years of research and experience. People can now see richer lives ahead of them. In proportion as we spread the knowledge of actual facts, will we add new hope in the lives of men and women; and in proportion as we provide opportunities for growth, will we witness improvement and enrichment of home and community life. This is a movement to meet a great national need. The people in industry and in the professions are ready for it.

A *third* vital value in education will be discussed under the theme, "The international point of view." It is wellknown that much of the discord, unhappiness, and lack of harmony in the world is due to ignorance and misunderstanding. Through false teaching, prejudices and hatred have been built and fostered. It often takes decades, even centuries, to eliminate the bad effects of such teaching. We had far too much of that in the late World War.

One of our widely read newspaper writers admitted after the war that he wrote untruths about the atrocities overseas to inflame the feelings of hatred in America—people are better fighters when they hate. After the death of this writer, only a few years ago, the excuse was made that he wrote thus to help America—he wrote lies for the sake of patriotism.

Is *genuine* patriotism dependent on truth or falsehood? "My country right or wrong?" No. "My country, may she always be right."

We need, in our schools of America, textbooks in history and geography, newspapers, and magazines that are written with the open-minded attitude of seeking the truth.

The World Federation of Education Associations, which met in 1929, in Geneva, Switzerland, set as one of its purposes the study of sound forms of education by the giving of accurate and satisfying information in regard to one another and by eliminating, so far as possible, the old-time prejudices and animosities which have too long dominated the world.

Can we not in the schools of America "set our own house in order" by developing a sense of true values—by eliminating from our instruction that which is not built of truth.

Most of us as teachers believe that the hope of the world is in the youth of the world. International goodwill, world understanding, will come when a generation is taught and acts upon the principles of justice taught by the greatest teacher of all time.

May I quote a paragraph written by the college youth who won the second prize in the National Oratorical Contest of the 1928 Intercollegiate Peace Association? There is food for thought for the teachers of America in what this youth says:

Education for peace, moreover, involves the training of youth in international understanding. Are our schools developing minds of international understanding? Not if they teach jingoistic patriotism. Are they fostering human sympathy? Not if they inculcate hatred of other nations and fear of other races. Our educational system must take more and more definitely world peace as an objective. Let us cease to glorify militaristic campaigns and military heroes. Let us stress rather the study of peace efforts, international sports, world contests. Let us urge the wider study of foreign languages and foreign culture. Let us show the indebtedness of our land to other lands. Let the Atlantic and the Pacific be henceforth, not barriers separating *enemies,* but links connecting *friends.* And finally, let the boy and girl seek out between themselves and other races, not points of *difference* but *interests held in common bonds of friendship.*

These vital values of freed intelligence, wisely used leisure and world goodwill, open many doors to service. You will think of others. As you follow these programs through the week, you will have a new appreciation of the glory of teaching. Your satisfaction in service will be deepened. You will understand better the causes that underlie the rapid growth of the National Education Association. You will feel a new dedication to its program of service to childhood. You will appreciate more fully the vast work which remains to be done before the perfection of teaching, the improvement of salary schedules, the building up of retirement systems, and tenure regulations can be fully accomplished. Generations of the finest men and women of America have poured their lives into the National Education Association. They have laid foundations, but much remains to be done. Progress literally waits on able leaders and loyal followers. There is a part for all. Our educational progress and the advance of our civilization will depend upon us and it will be measured by our energy, our vision, and our loyalty.

EDUCATION FOR WORLD COMMUNITY

PAUL DENGLER, DIRECTOR, AUSTRO-AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION, VIENNA, AUSTRIA

A few months ago I came to your country for the third time on one of those great and luxurious boats crossing the Mediterranean Sea and Atlantic Ocean. What had been at the time of Columbus a great and unheard of adventure was just a plain trip to me, with dancing, music, and radio, a thrilling experience as long as you were not seasick.

I went on in one of your marvelous transcontinental trains. There was a club car and all conveniences and it was no more the adventure of your great pioneers as they moved West—no danger, no difficulty, no adventure. Then I came to San Francisco and to Berkeley where I was teaching "Comparative Education in Europe," at the summer session and there I had not at all the feeling of being far from home. I can send a telegram home and have in a few hours a reply. I can even speak to my people at home. In old times when you took a boat you never knew whether you would come back; when you took a train you never knew whether you would arrive. Just think of our great German poet, Goethe, when he went to Italy. It was a great adventure. It took him weeks and weeks to get there.

To attend this meeting in Columbus I came by airplane. I left on Friday night and I came to Los Angeles and left Los Angeles Saturday morning, was here last night and here today, leaving tomorrow and teaching on Thursday. Well, this airplane trip was not even an adventure, not even dangerous. However, I must confess to you that there are air pockets. They first say there are not. Well, we found one quite vicious in Arizona, which dropped us a few hundred feet and our heads bumped the ceiling.

Now boats, trains, airplanes, all that is my personal experience. It is as well an experience of yours. Everybody can have such experiences today. All of the boats going over from here to Europe are crowded, all of the trains in Europe are packed, and so it is in Asia, in South America, in Africa, all over the world. A continuous stream coming from one country going to the other—an interchange of people as it has never been before in the world.

Besides that we have the press, the radio, the mails. We read every day astounding new things about progress and accomplishment. Byrd is speaking to us from the South Pole; Marconi is putting on the lights in Sidney, Australia; in the electrical convention in Berlin a hundred people from the four corners of the world speak to one another, and millions all over the world listen.

What does that mean? I believe mankind is facing an entirely new situation today, a situation which has never existed before, which could not exist because he had not the possibilities for it. It is a new rhythm which has come into the world and we are just at the beginning of this new time. We could divide the time into two parts—the time up to our arrival and from now on.

How does that new situation affect us. Both economically and culturally there is a progressive attractivity and uniformity all over the world, as well as a growing interdependence. Look at the picture of old Europe. Every nation had its characteristics deeply written in the past. They had their arts, their customs, and even their food was different. If you come to Europe today you will find a growing uniformity, and if you go to a hotel perhaps you will not know whether you are in Belgium, in Italy, in Austria, or in Germany. We are so interdependent that if something happens in one corner of the world we feel it in other corners of the world.

This growing uniformity and interdependence of the world is one of the great characteristics of our time. In spite of that we see in our time just the opposite of this movement in other fields. We find race nationalism all over the world; we find that this integration of the world is opposed by disintegration to the same extent. All over Europe today you find high walls of tariff, hatred, and suspicion. Look at Germany and France, France and Italy, Italy and Jugo-Slavia, Hungary and Rumania, Czecho-Slovakia and Belgrade, Poland and Lithuania; wherever you look you will find in spite of that great unifying movement that the nations strive to break away from one another.

We had only one human culture up to the Renaissance, and later. Now we have English culture, French, German, Italian, American, and so on. Not only are the nations building up high walls against one another, but even within nations, the political parties opposing each other are two different worlds.

In Europe, after we have an election we decide on the future of the country, whether it will be conservative or radical. It may be that after the election a country runs reactionary or Bolshevistic, or that hatred goes down to the whole life—goes into the family, goes into the school. Our schools in Europe are full of politics. This wonderful youth movement in Germany was already started before the war, and the boys and girls said, "We want to be free; to have our own leaders; to go into the woods and be good friends; to have our fires on the tops of the mountains, and shape our lives as we want ourselves and our own leaders." Now this great youth movement has split into different parts. You may come to a school in my country and you will find that the youngsters, perhaps, will not speak to one another because one group belongs to the radical organization and another group to the conservatives.

So you find growing disintegration in spite of this progress which throws us together from all corners of the world.

The slogans which are used for both movements, for that one economic and cultural union, and for that narrow nationalism which considers itself the only thing in the world are international and national.

Very often you find the belief that those two forces, international and national, are opposed to each other. In Europe you cannot think internationally if you want to be a good patriot. I personally believe that there is no conflict at all between National and International. Suppose we replace the word "international" with "supernational." What does that mean, "supernational"? I do not think of some executive body controling national affairs. I am thinking of a mentality, of a state of mind which is this—first of all we must be good patriots; we must be proud of being what we are. You are Americans and I am an Austrian, and I am as proud of being an Austrian as you are of being Americans, and we must realize the contributions to humanity which come from each other. Based on that background of a deep national conviction in the best sense of the word, being proud of our traditions, our customs, our kind of thinking, our conception of life, we can build up the supernational mind and we can think in terms of world community. There is no conflict as soon as we see supernationally.

A countryman at home once said to me, "I hate the Englishmen."

"Why do you hate the English?" I said, "Do you know English people?"

"I know some of them," he said.

"Now why do you hate them?"

"Well," he said, "I don't hate them. They are nice people but you see I hate this idea."

That is a typical attitude. We have our prejudices; we say what others have said; we repeat what we read in certain papers, which are written for the purpose of controling the public mind. We have personal experiences, but we do not believe in them because it is printed otherwise.

I go even further. I do not say we can think supernationally without being bad patriots. I even say we must think supernationally if we want to be really good patriots. The explanation may be what I said at the beginning, this growing interdependence—we are interlinked, intertwined, all of us, throughout the world. We must think supernationally if we want to maintain our own culture; if we want to serve the future of humanity. I have gone through much hardship during the period after the war. I have seen so many countries, and I have lived in that atmosphere of suspicion, of narrow-mindedness, of hatred, so that I know what the Europeans need so badly—this idea that we must have our own nation, but at the same time we must believe that above the nation there is something greater which is our continent, the continent of the world.

Education today also faces an entirely new situation. We need first of all the cooperation of the nation *in the nation,* and then the cooperation of the nations. We must try to develop child communities, teacher communities, and parent communities. I believe that we need the parents more than anything else if we want to avoid those conflicts for the children. The home must go with us. I could give you many illustrations where teachers in my country did their best to create a broad-mindedness, an international mindedness, and the child came back home and father, with just a smile, with just a word, killed all the enthusiasm and confused the child.

It is a long way. Let us think of what has been done on this side for bringing together not only the nation but the nations. Your National Education Association has done a great deal for the teachers and parents, and above all, for the children of your country. The fact that you have placed on your program this year the "International Aspect of Education" proves that you are aware of the situation as it is. You are at the beginning. It is just coming but it is going deeper and deeper, and within a generation it will go to each individual child through the channels of school and home. There are other organizations—the whole parent-teacher movement in your country, the World Federation of Education Associations, which I attended last year in Geneva; the Progressive Education Association, and then a fine international organization which is the International Education Fellowship.

The International Education Fellowship has every two years a big conference, once at Locarno; last year we had one in Elsinore, Denmark, attended by thousands and thousands of teachers. There was an atmosphere of friendliness, of understanding, of international mindedness. Every evening each nation gave a little entertainment. I remember with particular delight the American entertainment where we made fun of the speakers of the Conference in a very nice way. At the Polish entertainment, a German student accepted and thanked the Poles for their invitation just at that time when the commercial war between Poland and Germany was very acute.

There are international games of all kinds in European countries today which help create and promote international mindedness. Last year we had in London an international jamboree, with thousands and thousands of delegates from all countries of the world.

Scholarly interchange throughout the world is growing apace. We have in Europe institutions like the Austro-American Institute in Vienna; there is one in Paris, one in London, one in Berlin, another one in Rome; there will be one in a few weeks in Italy, and one in Vladivostok and Budapest.

Throughout the world we have now such institutions as I am representing. What does that mean? Ours is a center for international understanding, for that supernational mindedness. We organized summer courses at the University of Vienna. We organized a student exchange. We are sending students from Europe to America. This last year I have sent thirty-five students to America and a similar number is coming to our country. They are staying in our best hotels in Vienna and in our best families. They do not pay a cent for the whole year, free board, lodging, and tuition. In these institutions we try to develop friendly atmosphere. In the Austro-American Institute we try to make personal contacts. We introduce these newcomers to students, to our professors. We take them out into the country where of course the American friends drink only soda water because we have that bad habit of drinking wine, but I think we are doing away with that. The Youth Movement, for instance, forbids this to its members,—and there are more than three and one-half million boys and girls now registered in the Youth Movement—they never drink, they never smoke. That comes from the inside. Do you know what the attitude of our boys and girls is now? It is considered as smart not to smoke, not to drink. It is not sportsmanlike. It is this new idea of youth which I think is very fine.

Now these institutes, like our Institute in Vienna, at the same time are connected with other institutes, those of Paris, Berlin, and Rome, and all the other institutes; so that there is a network all over Europe today. This increasing scholarly interchange is one of the characteristic postwar products. There will be new institutes all over the world and there will be an increasing interchange of scholars or students, and of parents and so on. But what can be done still further in the future? One great thing which we can achieve is international student correspondence. We are just in the beginning. Wouldn't it be fine to have an international teachers' correspondence? Wouldn't it be great to have international parent organizations' correspondence? Nothing of that kind exists as yet except the student correspondence, which is in its infancy. Then international educational films could be shown all over the world showing that children are the same all over the world.

In a subway in New York there was a Japanese child and beside that child a white child and two people came in, husband and wife, and were seated facing those two. And the wife turned to her husband and said, "Now just look at those children. They look so different. They are so small. There is a world between them, the white and the Japanese." And after awhile the Japanese baby began to cry and the white baby joined in and then the husband turned to the wife and said, "Well, they look different but they speak the same language."

So it is true. I see it every day. Your American children speak the same language as our children do, and it is the same all the world over. If we could have educational films showing child life in Russia, in Japan, in South America, and so on, they would bring us closer.

But it would be still better if we could travel and have an international student exchange to the greatest extent. How fine it would be with the cooperation of the states, of private organizations and contributions from youth to make such an interchange. Send hundreds of boys from Germany to France, and hundreds of girls from Italy to England, and so on. Have the youth of the world move during the summertime in hundreds of thousands. That would make them know the others, and that would make them appreciate the countries of the world.

Wouldn't it be splendid to have student delegations? Wouldn't it be fine if some day Columbus would send some bright boys and girls, perhaps 16, 17, or 18 years old, to Europe, bringing a message of goodwill from the boys and girls of Columbus to the boys and girls over there; take pictures, take notes; come back and bring messages of that old world to American children. Well, those are just a few instances out ot thousands which must be carefully planned but which finally will bring the young generations together.

We are today more and more drawn together by the technic of inescapable progress. In spite of that, nationalism is trying to build up. These two conflicting tendencies can be overcome by a supernational mindedness. To build up such a supernational mindedness is up to you and to me and to the thousands of teachers all over the world. I deeply believe that never have the teachers had a greater responsibility than in our times, because we are facing an entirely new situation which needs a new kind of mind and a looking-forward into an unknown future.

The responsibility of the American teacher is greater almost than our responsibility in Europe. America is a young country, it is not so bound by traditions. It can build up a new spirit easier than we can in our thousand-year-old countries over there. America has universal interest in education, which is not so true with us. But more than that, you have one great thing which we have lost over there—cooperation. That word cooperation is perhaps the most precious inheritance of pioneer times, and only being here can one realize it. What we in Europe believe the Americans to be is very often that everybody is a little Rockefeller who comes from over here; that they are hard-boiled business men; that there is marvelous business organization; that you have jazz and skyscrapers but we do not know that your greatest quality is cooperation.

Now when you come more and more, when you have that interchange through letters and maps of all kinds, in Sunday-school books, school delegations, through school fairs and through a thousand means of this technical world, then I believe that you can teach us that cooperative spirit. You can help us to fight that wrong nationalism which is threatening Old Europe and you can spread out the real conception of patriotism.

This new goal in American education as well as in universal education, this education for supernational understanding which is in its infancy but which will grow and which must grow if we want to save the world, is as much for your sake as for ours. Let us be convinced that patriotism is a great thing, but patriotism is not enough, because above all else there is humanity.

This is my deep personal belief. It is the message which I have brought you from Europe, from my own country, Austria, a small country today but still great in culture, and I believe that culture does not depend upon navy, upon army, upon great territory. This is also the message which I brought you from the other corner of your great American Continent, across mountains, plains and deserts from California, that in spite of all those things which separate us, teachers, parents, and children, throughout the world, there is some greater thing which unites us, and this greater thing is the cooperation of the teachers throughout the world and the conviction of the new teachers throughout the world that above nations there is humanity.

GREETINGS

A. E. WINSHIP, EDITOR, *Journal of Education,* BOSTON, MASS.

I regard this meeting of delegates of the National Education Association the most important meeting that has been held or is scheduled to be held in 1930. I am not unmindful of the revelations of science, devotion of philanthropists, wisdom of economists, and zeal of religionists.

This is the only delegate body of 1200, representing a paid membership of 205,000 persons, whose main purpose is the promotion of civilization by the careful preparation of millions of boys, girls, and youths to be intelligent men and women, equipped for worthy citizenship.

The delegates here assembled have created a commodious official headquarters in Washington with a staff of experienced, devoted experts of high efficiency and are maintaining it without one dollar of public money, or one penny from any private source, foundation, or philanthropist.

Considering the tendency of the times to tap the public treasury, serve the business interests, and enjoy the generous luxuries of the benevolent-minded, the record of the National Education Association to mind its own business, and serve God and humanity with every penny of its two-dollar membership is the wonder of the twentieth century.

These delegates are solely responsible for an organization, never fettered by anemic traditions and never entangled with fanatical alliances.

These delegates are the mainspring or balance wheel of an organization of teachers and other educators who are consecrated to the service of the school and the children for the highest good of civilization.

It is of inestimable service to teachers, not for the teachers personally, but for their efficiency in the schools for the advantage of the young people who are to be the America of tomorrow.

ALASKA, OUR LAST FRONTIER

A. E. KARNES, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, KETCHIKAN, ALASKA

I would like to impress upon you that Alaska belongs to and is a part of the United States of America, having been purchased from Russia in 1868 for the sum of $7,200,000. It should seem unnecessary that American educators be told this, but we Alaskans are continually coming into possession of facts which prove that there are many people of the States, including not only teachers, but business and professional men as well, who are not so informed. Letters come addressed to Alaska, Canada, and to Alaska, British Columbia; and every year hundreds of parcel post and express packages come to the territory from the states with customs declarations on them.

Within the past year a Rotary Club of the state of Wisconsin sent the Rotary Club of Ketchikan an American Flag, with a statement that it was making a collection of flags of foreign countries and requested that the Ketchikan Club send a flag of its country in return. Again within the past year a member of another Rotary Club in the state of Texas, and another in Minnesota, wrote the Ketchikan Club that they had been appointed international corresponding secretaries, the duties of whom were to correspond with clubs in foreign countries with a view to creating a better international understanding.

I could go on and give dozens of instances which have come to my personal attention, which show that far too many people in the states need to be informed that Alaska is a part of the United States.

I would also like to correct any false impressions as to the climate of Alaska. When the territory was purchased, it was often referred to as "Seward's icebox," and ever since writers of fiction and writers of fact, who have wanted to add color to their writings have pictured Alaska as being perpetually covered with ice and snow, with its inhabitants living in ice and snow houses, and many other such false ideas.

The coast line of the territory, from the Canadian border around the Gulf of Alaska, to the Aleutian Islands, lies directly in the Japan Current, and this part of the territory has a very mild climate during winter months as compared with that of the northern states; the mean temperature of this area for winter is around twenty to thirty degrees above zero, and only for short periods does the temperature fall as low as zero.

I have lived in Ketchikan for the past three winters and eight degrees above zero is the lowest temperature recorded in that time, and while my friends of the middlewestern and northern states have been writing of twenty-five to thirty degrees below zero the people of southeastern Alaska have enjoyed temperatures of but few degrees below freezing.

Of course, the interior of Alaska is cold during the winter months, the temperature running from ten to forty degrees below zero, with occasional temperatures as low as sixty below, but these extreme low temperatures are not at all common, while similar low temperatures are sometimes recorded in some northern states.

On account of this misunderstanding of climatic conditions, business houses in the states often refuse to fill orders to be shipped during winter months; they have the idea that the entire coastline is frozen up during this time. This alone has caused business houses as well as individuals in the territory serious inconveniences.

As a matter of fact, two steamship companies operate regular weekly service between Seattle and Seward, touching all the towns of southeastern Alaska; and from Seward, trains run twice a week to Fairbanks, 475 miles to the interior. So instead of Alaska being isolated during the winter months, there is regular passenger, mail, and freight service to all the larger centers of population, while the smaller settlements are served by dog-team or by airplane.

Alaska has an area of more than 590,000 square miles, or is about one-fifth the size of the forty-eight states; it is larger than all of the New England states, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, West Virginia, Porto Rico, Hawaiian Islands, Washington, Oregon, and California combined. Its coastline is longer than that of the United States proper. Yet, with all its largeness, its population is only a little over 50,000, consisting of about sixty percent whites and about forty percent natives. I wish I had time to tell you something of the serious problems facing the natives of Alaska, and also something of the life and customs of the Eskimos, but it would take too long.

At the present time, fishing is the most important industry and has been for many years; over $75,000,000 is invested, and over $50,000,000 worth of fish are taken from the waters annually; this represents an annual production of more than seven times what was originally paid for the territory. Salmon is the most important fish taken, while halibut, herring, codfish, and some shellfish are also taken.

An industry not yet started, but for which surveys have been made and contracts let with the government by two of the largest paper concerns of the United States, is that of the paper-pulp industry, and this bids fair to rival that of the fishing industry within a few years. Due to the fact that paper pulp timber in the eastern states is being rapidly depleted, attention has been directed to Alaska, which has enough such timber to supply the needs of the states perpetually.

The second industry in importance is mining; over $25,000,000 worth of precious metals are taken annually, and since the territory was purchased more than $570,000,000 worth, or more than eighty times the purchase price of the territory, has been taken. Gold is the most valuable metal taken, with copper, silver, lead, and tin ranking next. There are also large deposits of a high-grade marble, as well as coal. With all that has been taken, geologists tell us that hardly a scratch has been made in the surface as compared with what may be expected. Mining will always be an important industry in Alaska.

More than $15,000,000 worth of fur has been taken, and while the total annual value of fur from wild animals is slightly decreasing, fur farms are springing up rapidly; the climate is especially adapted to raising mink and blue and silver fox, and this industry is becoming more and more important.

While agriculture is being conducted only on a small scale as compared with that in the states, experiment stations were established many years ago by the government, and many people have been attracted to the interior because of its possibilities. Many do not realize that even as far north as the Arctic Circle there are from eighty to one hundred growing days each summer, and that with the long days, the longest of which the sun shines nearly twenty-four hours, about as much sunshine is available for growing purposes in that region as is available in the states.

The finest kind of vegetables are grown, as well as the small fruits, such as strawberries, raspberries, and blueberries, and the interior of Alaska teems with wild cranberries, while the timbered regions abound in red and blue huckleberries. Small grains, such as wheat, oats, and barley, are being grown, and it has been demonstrated that hogs, cattle, and sheep can be raised successfully.

The principal live-stock industry is that of raising reindeer. Between the years 1892 and 1902, 1280 reindeer were imported into the northwestern part of the territory, and distributed among the Eskimos under the direction of representatives of the United States Bureau of Education. There are now nearly one million reindeer, and last year more than 75,000 tons of frozen reindeer meat were shipped to the states. This industry has great possibilities, for the territory will support many millions of reindeer, with very little expense; and in the not far distant future the states will depend on Alaska for a good supply of its cheap but delicious meat.

I wish I were able to picture to you, even in a small way, the beauties of the scenery of Alaska, but our best writers have expressed a lack of words for this purpose. Those who have visited all the other wonders of the world, and who have visited Alaska, claim that it is the richest spot on earth in point of scenery, with its forest-clad snow-capped mountains, its mountain-locked lakes, its long winding rivers, its dashing trout-filled streams, and its 20,000 square miles of glaciers.

There are eight mountain peaks higher than Mt. Whitney, the highest peak in the states, Mt. McKinley being nearly 6000 feet higher. There are a few active volcanic mountains and the "Vally of Ten Thousand Smokes" is considered one of the chief wonder spots of the world. The scenery of Alaska attracts thousands of tourists and scientists annually.

Alaska, the last frontier, is also the last and greatest playground of America, with its big game, consisting of bear, deer, moose, caribou, mountain sheep, and mountain goat; and its small game such as ducks, geese, ptarmigan, grouse, and so forth. Its trout fishing is the best to be found anywhere, and a thing the game fisherman appreciates more than anything else, there are no "Keep Out" signs facing him as he fishes along the lake shores and streams. There is no limit to the number of trout one may catch, and in fact, on some streams there is a bounty on trout, for they eat salmon eggs, thus destroying commercial fish.

I hope that you will become more interested in this territory and its problems. I hope you will adopt the slogan, "See America First," and you have not seen America until you have seen Alaska.

At present you can reach Alaska only by boat or by airplane. But watch with interest the development of the proposed Pacific-Yukon highway. Congress has already appropriated money for its survey, and Canada is joining in on the project, and will help build it.

We of Alaska hope that before many years this highway, which already extends as far north as Hazelton, British Columbia, will be completed on to Dawson, Fairbanks, and to Nome, with side roads to the coast towns of Hyder, Ketchikan, Wrangell, Petersburg, and Juneau, and when it is completed, the greatest recreation ground in the world will be accessible to every automobile owner of North America, and at a cost that even school teachers can afford.

THROUGH THE LOOKING GLASS

MRS. A. H. REEVE, PRESIDENT, INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF HOME AND SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

We look into a mirror and we see what is to us the most interesting sight in the world, namely, ourselves. We look eagerly, to see what manner of man or woman we may be, but we like best to view the picture under rose-shaded electric light. We pose a little; we make the best of ourselves. Unless the pitiless glare of day shines upon us we do not see the shortcomings, the peculiarities, the wrinkles, and having beside us no standard with which to compare ourselves, we go away, as a rule, well satisfied with what we have seen. Like the wicked queen in the old fairy tale, we cry:

Mirror, mirror on the wall,
Who is the fairest of us all?

and we greedily accept the flattering assurance that we have no rivals.

In Lewis Carroll's delicious nonsense story, as Alice looked at the great mirror over the fireplace, it melted into permeable mist, and she passed through it into a land in which all the values were changed. The harder she strove to reach a goal, the more elusive did it become, and it was necessary to run as fast as possible in order merely to stay at the point at which she had arrived.

In moving out into the international field we have passed through the looking glass, and we are now only one square on the great world-checkerboard. Like the baby which the Duchess thrust into Alice's arms, the thing we have been carrying so carefully sometimes turns out to be only a pig, instead of a precious infant; and again, what over there has looked like a Red Queen, when we come back here and shake it, resolves into a kitten, and a black one at that.

"A sense of values is the best spiritual police against what is mean and shabby," Henry Neumann has said. Here in this country we have perhaps no greater need than a true sense of values, and if this great convention makes us pause in our busy lives to take stock and make honest appraisal, it will have made a tremendous contribution to national advancement.

We are a very young nation, and we have all the defects as well as the virtues of youth. We are cock-sure of ourselves; we are inclined to be "bumptious"; we love to "tell the world," and we do it. We lay heavy emphasis on money and what money can do. We like things to be large and showy; size and cost bulk hugely in our conversation about our belongings and achievements. We like our high spots to be heavily gilded, so that people afar off may see them and be dazzled, and we do not feel ashamed that they are so high and so "spotty," and that between them lie barren deserts and swamps, "bad lands," and vast stretches of dull mediocrity. We like to have a reputation for knowing *some*thing about *every*thing, and we do not mind as much as we should that we do not, in the mass, know a *great* deal about *any*thing. We think that our lack of culture is concealed by a high surface polish.

We make our boast that in our country every child may be prepared for college; but we do not shout so loudly the fact that only a fraction of them take advantage of that opportunity, and in educational circles we very often do not even whisper about the effect upon those who cannot go of the domination of college entrance requirements which one hundred percent of our high-school students must meet. *Vox populi* is beginning to murmur, however, on this point and it will sooner or later have to be recognized as still *vox Dei.*

We talk much of the honor due to the teachers, and we glorify the profession in the educational press; yet in more than one of our greatest states the average salary paid the teachers is $700, in spite of the fact that social scientists have set from $18 to $20 a week as the lowest sum on which a single person can live decently and respectably, at a level of efficiency, upon his or her earnings. We do not ask where or how they raise the other five or eight dollars to bring them within the safety zone.

We make eighty percent of the world's motion pictures. We are advertised, not by our loving friends but by the world's greatest amusement money-makers. What do our social values look like through the looking glass? People over there say frankly: "Tell us of your new methods in education, of your bringing together of home and school, of your splendid work for mental and physical hygiene, but *do not tell us of your homes.* We have seen too much of them upon the screen. We find it hard to believe what you say about them, in the pictures that you send us. Your young people drink in public to intoxication; they ride about at night in cars with no chaperon; they go to cabarets and what you call roadhouses. Young men and women grow affectionate upon slight acquaintance; and these are not the lowest of your lower classes. They come from homes which are veritable palaces and their parents seem to be men and women of social position. Tell us of your schools, then; we do not want to hear about your homes!"

The first and greatest value of the international viewpoint is that it brings us to see ourselves as others see us; and it will "frae mony a blunder free us, and foolish notion," if we will not shut our eyes tightly to avoid the sight of what may be unpleasant to our national pride. It may help us to measure ourselves, not by money but by what we do with that money and what we secure of solid benefit in return for what seems—to Looking Glass House—the outpouring of wealth beyond the dreams of avarice. To us has much been given. What of our stewardship? Are we better citizens and parents, better teachers, principals, and superintendents, to match our better schools? What of our equality of educational opportunity, and how far may we honestly lay claim to it, and what, exactly, does it mean? How do we stand in comparison with old world systems through the looking glass, as regards teacher training, preschool education, rural extension, and vocational guidance?

To establish values, we must make comparison of standards. People are coming to the United States from all over the world; not idle tourists such as we send abroad by hundreds of thousands every year, to spend millions of dollars and misrepresent our country, but thinking people, students of education and economics. They have seen our glittering high spots from afar and they are coming for a closer view. They are finding those other levels, where the gilding has worn off or has never been applied. Now that we have stepped through the mirror and out upon the great checkerboard, we shall have to run very fast indeed to stay where we are in their opinion; and that is, after all, only in the ninth square in the educational field. Yet we go on making our high spots higher and brighter, instead of leveling up and doing a little painting down below. Our slums and our skyscrapers are rather typical of our American life.

On the other hand, what are some of the virtues of this national youthfulness of ours? Much the same as those of the young people of our day,—a splendid selfconfidence, enthusiasm, the courage of our convictions, the spirit of adventure, that same spirit which has led to the sweep of our empire from sea to sea and now, through glorious daring, to the carrying of our flag from pole to pole, and which in education leads us to try, to weigh, to risk, and so, ultimately, to achieve. Men and women are giving strength and brain and life itself to educational advancement, some provided with all that they could ask or desire for their task and some laboring in the desert places under conditions which try men's souls. It is this social and human waste which must be salvaged. Great hearts and keen minds must not be lost because we fail of the vision which will reach beyond our town or even our state into the vast national field and through example and inspiration and the education which comes through such meetings as these, will lead us to see that until we have given *all* of the children that to which they are entitled, we have failed in our citizenship.

The international viewpoint demands our re-orientation. We must see this land of opportunity, not only as demonstrating education at its best but as offering a ground for experimentation, in which, because of our freedom and our local selfgovernment, new theories may be tried, weighed, and accepted or rejected as their value may be proven. We need, therefore, to recognize frankly the constantly changing nature of our program, not as a liability to be concealed as far as possible from the public eye, but as what may be considered an asset, if we are willing to admit that where we fail and confess to failure, we are but saying that we are wiser today than we were yesterday. There is nothing so stultifying to progress as the fear of change. Change is a vital value, not only in education but in all life. We change when we grow, when we broaden and develop. We who are living in this age of miracles have reason to be thankful that the old walls of traditions are crumbling before the trumpet blasts of the priests of the new dispensation and the new ideas in education are rushing in where formerly they had striven in vain to climb over the barriers of prejudice and ultraconservatism and—dare we suggest it?—slothfulness. For it is so much easier to go on as we are!

When we pass through the looking glass we find ourselves in a strange world of centralized instruction, and we look around and, like the Pharisee of old, we thank God we are not as other men are, we who shy like colts when the shadow of federal influence falls across the field of our cherished states' rights. Yet, in Looking Glass House there are some things which we should do well to observe. Over there the teachers must all measure up to certain fixed standards. Politics and local patronage cannot enter into the realm of public instruction. Our flexibility, so desirable in many instances, becomes flabby weakness as we range from our superbly equipped educationists, down the long scale to the child sent out from high school to teach other children. Our vaunted equality is in danger of becoming known for the hollow mockery that it is, when we look back at it from the other side of the mirror.

Another vital value, a crying need of today, is working knowledge which will function on all levels. The educational theories which have been worked out in the seats of the mighty must be adaptable, *and adapted,* to the use of the man on the street or the country road, to the woman in her kitchen in the flat or on the farm. We must lay more emphasis upon the principles which are applicable to *all* conditions, modified to meet local requirements. We must level up as well as down. Local demands must be raised to their highest power through the education of the people in the economic worth of practical wisdom. If the standards the teachers are trying to establish are to be those for all children, the public must be solidly behind the schools—and not too far behind. The support which can come from intelligent public opinion and from that alone is a vital value, a universal need which is being met as yet in only the most elementary degree. Dr. Lewis Alderman has well said: "Our motto has been that we must educate all of the children of all of the people. But we find that we have not succeeded in this because we have diagnosed the case as one more simple than it is. We find that we cannot educate all of the children without also educating all of the people."

A survey carried on in fifty countries by the International Bureau of Education for the International Federation of Home and School has shown that in thirty-three nations, definite and persistent effort is being made to draw together those major factors in education, the home, the school, and the community. For the child is not sent to school as a sheet of white paper upon which you may write; nor is it even a palimpsest, on which you may cover the old lettering and begin a new story. It is a little human document, which often must be translated with much travail of spirit. The first chapters are complete; the character of the hero or heroine is clearly outlined, and that which follows can be only a development of the plot.

In the White House Conference two striking points which are already emerging from the mass of material which is accumulating are these: The appalling inequality of educational opportunity of which we have spoken; and the fact, gathered from practically every one of its many committees, that the life of the child is a unit and must be so treated, and that to this end, the home and the community must be recognized as coequal educational factors with the school, and as such, must be drawn into an ordered, working partnership in which the duties and responsibilities of each member of the firm shall be clearly defined and adhered to.

Now what do we see in Looking Glass House? The nursery schools, which here are so few, so experimental still for special groups, in France are a part of the public school system, and the poorer the neighborhood, the more wretched and squalid the surroundings, the more surely are these *Écoles Maternelles,* these Motherly Schools, to be found. The teacher is the mother of all the neighborhood and every concern of the poorest household is vital to her who reigns as a veritable queen among her adoring subjects, the parents of her little pupils. In France we see too the *École Ménagère,* the Housekeeping School. In grim old buildings, up three or four flights of winding stone stairs, are rooms simple to austerity. Here are found no gleaming near-mahogany, no electric stoves and refrigerators preaching the gospel of the instalment plan, but simplicity and frugality to match the homes from which the pupils come and to which they must return. When a dress is worn out, they do not throw it away and buy another for $4.98; they dye it and one or two others in the same stage of dilapidation and out of the three they make one good and useful garment.

Move now to the white square where we see the windmills and the canal boats and look for a moment at parent education in Holland. There we see no orderly classes presided over by intelligent young women, college-trained, and with perhaps occasional contact with a real, live child in the regulated atmosphere of a nursery school; we hear no wise expositions of "motivation" and "controled environment" and "conditioned responses." We see instead a great rambling red brick schoolhouse, the Museum for Parents and Educators, presided over by three women who are mothers first and teachers by vocation. On the first floor are rooms filled with toys, bought and homemade, Montessori equipment and Froebelian playthings, picture and storybooks, and a parents' library, and the director is ready to discuss books or to give lessons in toymaking or the use of the apparatus. Baby clothes and clothes for children line the walls of the next room, and on the big tables mothers are busy cutting little garments out of new material or old clothes of their own, while a director stands ready with advice or instruction, as need may arise. In a third room are casts and models of the human form in childhood, a lifesized baby doll and a complete display of all that is needed for the care and comfort of children on varied economic levels. Here a nurse talks on feeding, bathing, and clothing, and gives hourly demonstrations as the mothers come and go. There are other rooms to meet other needs, and on the second floor is a sunny kindergarten where mothers may "park" their babies while they themselves go to school. Helpful literature is distributed, and if they are puzzled, nurse or director is ready to talk over special problems in friendly fashion in a quiet corner.

Heroic little Belgium fills another square, in Looking Glass House. In its center stands the great state building which houses the Juvenile Court, where little boys shake in their shoes before the black-clad judges, three in a row. Not our idea at all, you may say. True; but they have another idea which is not ours either. Scattered through the poorest districts we come upon little houses just such as those the children live in, only these are very, very clean and neat. The door opens at a touch and we see a cheerful room with plants and a bird or a cat, and among them a pleasant-faced woman, knitting. The backroom is a playroom for small people, and in the little yard are swings, a sandbox, and some other apparatus. Upstairs are rooms for study and for handwork, and there after school may come the children whose parents are at work until seven oclock and who otherwise would roam the streets and feed the Juvenile Court. There they may find help with their lessons, occupations if they want them, and a simple supper; and juvenile delinquency is going down in the scale since these little homes opened their friendly doors.

They are so poor, in Looking Glass House, so very poor sometimes, and they can do only the simple, homely, *human* things; but when we look back through the misty mirror, our great institutions look a little bleak and overwhelming, and the real values become more apparent.

How our sense of those values changes and broadens as we look out as well as in and recognize and appreciate those which may make for our mutual interest and advancement! In our dealings with those in Looking Glass House, whether we go to them or they come to us, we see how vital are such things as tact and imagination, that magic power to put ourselves in the place of another, and sympathy in the true sense of the word, as feeling *with,* and not *for,* one another. Language and expression and the degree of national experience mean much; they are the background out of which values and concepts are developed. Racial psychology brings differences in thinking. We must learn to avoid easy assumptions based upon our own limited experience. To this new internationalism we must bring a desire to learn, and not to instruct. When men and women can come together with nothing to sell or to teach or to preach, the way is open for the establishment of that friendship which shall bring the world together, to labor for the welfare of the children, and the assurance of peace upon earth.

INTERNATIONAL GOODWILL, A NATURAL OUTCOME OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM FOR THE EARLY ELEMENTARY GRADES

IDA ODELLE RUDY, PRIMARY SUPERVISOR, DAYTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
DAYTON, OHIO

That times have changed is evident. We see traces of this wherever we look. A few years ago, we had small groups working out problems of international understanding and international cooperation. These groups gathered here and there and encouraged this type of thinking. But they were not very popular. People were hesitant about discussing these problems. Gradually groups became larger, and in other organizations we saw evidences that these ideals were permeating. The leaders who foresaw a federation of world educators and who came together in San Francisco some years ago, are realizing their dreams now, and while they stood quite alone at that time, they have gathered together thousands whose influence is felt and who are now promoting friendly world relationships.

After all we are world neighbors—Lindbergh, Eckener, Byrd, and others have demonstrated that distance is not so great, and that we are becoming close neighbors, and that each nation is only a small part of a big, interesting world.

This neighborly feeling has been felt in every organization and community. It is quite the thing to speak in terms of international relations now. Those who are not entirely well versed on the subject are finding it necessary to fall in line with this spirit of today and study international problems. Those who have been interested and have been students are having a chance to talk more freely about this.

The schools have a great part to play in this interesting world situation.

Our great educative system—the factories that turn out thousands of boys and girls each year who take their places in life—is the greatest of all world powers.

What then are the most vital factors in the educative process? They are the child on one hand and the adult civilization on the other. What is the child? Rugg says, "The child is a jumble of needs and interests and of a wide range of potential abilities." What is adult civilization? According to Rugg, "Adult civilization is an intricate and wellnigh incomprehensible composite of economic, political, and social institutions."

With these two important factors our world of humanity is developed. Let us think of the child first.

1. He must understand himself and the world in which he lives, and how it came to be.
2. He must have direct contact with things and people and the world about him.
   a. He is a member of a certain family, sex, and race. This gives him his inheritance, gifts, abilities, capacities, and traits.
   b. He is black because he is born black or vice versa.
   c. He is plastic.
   d. He is susceptible to influence by the authority of older people around him.
3. His moral habits are formed by the law of effect. Right is what is approved by his elders and that which satisfies a desire.
4. He is individualistic.
5. He has certain tendencies.
6. His environment, training, education, play their part in his life and are conditioned and limited by the nature which is being influenced. The environment acts not as a creative force but as a stimulating and selective force.

Kirkpatrick calls the age from three to six the period of individualism when children intelligently try to modify other people, their physical environment, and their world of fancy to suit themselves, and through this self-assertion develop a personality more independent.

Their conscience is influenced by the authority of older people around them, and their moral habits are formed by the law of effect. Right is what is approved by their elders and that which satisfies a desire.

Adult civilization is complex. It is filled with perplexing problems. It has struggles and disappointments. It is a strong factor in the life of a child. It must help the child to understand himself and his world about him, this complex life in which he exists. This understanding must come about through direct contacts with things and people of this world in which he lives.

What is the power that creates this atmosphere for right impressions, habits, attitudes, and ideals?

The answer is our schools. The curriculum of our schools, especially that for the early years which are so impressionable, must give opportunities for real thinking along the lines of world interests today.

The child must be taught to know and appreciate:

That all people of the world are occupied with the same things:

1. Building homes
2. Growing food
3. Making clothing
4. Engaging in wholesome sport
5. Celebrating holidays.

That all nations have similar problems and that all are striving for same things such as:

1. Conforming to some religion
2. Creating and maintaining a stable government
3. Extending educational opportunities to all
4. Adjusting differences by means of laws and customs
5. Promoting health and happiness
6. Providing productive employment.

That other people and nations have achieved success and that credit should be given them for inventions, discoveries, and other contributions to the world's progress.

Our social studies, then, should form the nucleus around which our curriculum should be built. These studies should be rich in material that will help our children to appreciate the value of labor and struggle, and should promote friendships among the children of the world. They should also stimulate curiosity about the lives of other people and nations. They should instil a sympathetic understanding and respect for the customs, forms of government, and religion of other peoples.

In the city of Dayton, Ohio, a fourth-grade class visited a foundry. As the children observed the work of the men, one child of nine said to his teacher, "I never knew that men had to work so hard in a foundry. I never knew they had to work so long. I appreciate now what it means for a man to start out in the morning and work all day."

This is just an example of what understanding and knowing through direct contact with people and things, mean to children. Give to them a rich experience through the social studies about other peoples and other countries, and they will unconsciously absorb right ideals of peace and goodwill for all people and all countries.

With the child on one hand and adult civilization on the other, the school is our opportunity and the teachers are the guiding stars. Our goal should be peace and goodwill among all men and all nations. Then goodwill need not be celebrated only on May 18, but will become such an intricate part of our lives that we will influence all who come in contact.

We must know to understand, and we must understand to be able to know.

If I knew you, and you knew me.
If both of us could clearly see,
And with an inner sight divine
The meaning of your heart and mine,
I'm sure that we should differ less,
And clasp our hands in friendliness.
Our thoughts would pleasantly agree
If I knew you, and you knew me.

LOOKING FORWARD—ABSTRACT

AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, PRESIDENT, WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS, AUGUSTA, ME.

A world civilization is being built up with startling rapidity. Commerce, travel, communications, the press, religious and educational cooperation, treaties and agreements, and worldwide charities must lead through imitation to a civilization of universal character. The world is face to face either with cooperation or catastrophe. Intellectual disarmament must precede the physical.

Our country could well afford, on the precedence of the Boxer Indemnity, to set aside the $143,000,000 coming from Germany, as a payment of expenses incident to the occupation of the Rhineland, the income to be used under the direction of the government or such provisions as it may make for educational research, fellowships, exchange of students and teachers, lectureships, to be applied to all countries. This, done for the development of the spiritual values of a worldwide civilization, would prove a controling influence in the world's progress and for international goodwill.

A policy of isolation for a great country like ours is a dangerous policy. Today no nation can live unto itself alone. The material prosperity of the several countries is of great concern to us. With our development of mass production, the perfection of machinery and our high efficiency make it necessary that the markets of the world be open to us. The future will demand such international cooperation, rather than rivalry, as will raise the standard of living of all peoples. This will require a more uniform level of wages and buying power. If the people of all countries could be raised in productive capacity and purchasing power more nearly to our own level, there would be less unemployment. Markets would expand. Capital would be more constantly employed. National distrust, racial animosity, religious bigotry and intolerance would grow less, finally disappear, and a reign of justice would be ushered in.

THE TEACHER'S JOB

JOHN CALLAHAN, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
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A little more than forty years ago I began work as a teacher in a little log schoolhouse in northwestern Wisconsin. While most people have a notion that vocational guidance is a modern invention, I wish to say that I was made a school teacher by vocational guidance. I had taken the teacher's examinations for the county merely because they were held in the schoolhouse where I attended high school, and as the other members of my class were writing, I decided to try it also; but I had made up my mind to learn a trade and had no intention of teaching school.

The high-school principal, under whose supervision I was for four years, spent quite a little time talking to me every once in a while about the joys of school teaching and finally convinced me that I ought to try it. However, at that time, and for at least ten years thereafter, I had a notion that teaching school was not an important enough job for a man to spend his life with. I thought, of course, that as far as women were concerned, it was as good a job as they could give their time to, as long as they cared to stay in any particular line of business. There were not as many things then that a woman could do as have developed in the years since that time. However, I liked the work and in line with Mark Twain's definition of work and play, I found myself playing most of the time.

A few years later when I became principal in a small town, it was my duty to convince the schoolboard and other members of the community that certain improvements and additions to the work should be made. That made it necessary for me to begin studying the importance of school work. I have kept that up, and I have sometime ago come to the conclusion that there is no more important work that either a man or woman can devote a life to.

There are three very good reasons why the nation should spend the amount of money it is spending on the schools. First, if we go back to the time this country was established, and our Constitution adopted, and look into what was said by the various statesmen in regard to schools, you will find that they all said something about like this: That if we made a success in the experiment of government that they were starting, it was going to be necessary for us to have an intelligent, educated electorate, an electorate that could do some thinking on its own account and not be at the mercy of every demagogue who came along with a cure for all the ills, or supposed ills, the country was heir to. Every statesman that has said anything on the subject since that time has said about the same thing.

When one looks into what they said about education at that time, he begins to wonder why they left it out of the Constitution. Many people are inclined to tell us that they left it out because they were convinced that it was a matter that should be left to the states; but when one digs into the history of the time, he cannot help coming to the conclusion that that was not the reason.

The reason was that there was such a wide difference of opinion between the New England states and some of those farther south as to what should be done in the way of education that they knew they never could come to an agreement on it; so they left it to the states, hoping that the states would do a good job.

I have developed for myself a second reason for spending all of the money we are spending even though the first is sufficient. There are still in the world many people who object to paying taxes for the education of other people's children. When I meet one of these people, I like to sit down and talk it out with him, because what I think they are doing is simply paying insurance on stability for the future. Our school system is the only insurance for stability worth having. If you doubt that, I suggest that you take a map of the world and pick the countries that have very little or nothing in the way of schools. Then go back into their history and note what happens every time they decide that they need a change of any kind in government. In almost every case they stage a revolution with all its loss of life and property, and property rights go overboard and are not worth the paper that records them.

When you study the history of this country, you can find a great deal of evidence that we have been able to settle many things of that kind with the ballot and without any trouble.

The third reason that I have developed to justify the cost of education in this country is one that is not used quite so often. I will admit it is not as high a type as the other two, but nevertheless, it has a great deal of weight in certain quarters, and that is the business promotional value of our schools. I believe that of all the business promoters, our school system is the best. First, if you could go back with me to the time I began teaching school and come down over the years making a note of the number of things that were regarded as luxuries that have come to be looked upon as actual necessities at the present time, you would understand what one means when he speaks of the rise in the standard of living. Now if education or schooling has had anything to do with this rise in the standard of living that has gone on steadily during the last fifty years, it has just that much to do with the increase of business that has come during those years. Second, take a map of the world, select the countries where there is a school system that compares somewhat favorably with ours. You will note that countries with good school systems are doing many times the amount of business that is done in the countries where there is no school system. When two things of this kind go together in every case where they exist, it certainly means that one has some effect on the other. Consider the countries in which there is no such school system as we have and then ask yourself, or any business man, this question: How will a million of those people compare as an asset to any business, with a million people such as we find in the United States, or in other countries where there is a good school system? The answer will always be that there is no comparison; that as a business asset, they are very far apart. Then, if this is true, business should be back of the schools at least to the same extent that they are back of their advertising, for, without the schools, their advertising would bring very little business.

Sometimes when I present these arguments to business men, I am told that they would agree with it, if most of our education was vocational, aimed at preparing young people for lines of work out of which they might make their living. In that case, they assume that what is known as our academic schooling has no effect on business. But, when one looks over the situation carefully, one is forced to a different conclusion. Take, for example the result that has come in this country growing out of the fact that we have not only taught the people of this country to read, but have made readers of them. Go back thirty or forty years and get from our census the number of people who were making their living then out of the fact that the people of this country were reading; then take this coming census and get the number of people that are now making their living out of that fact, and you will find that while the increase in population of the country has not been one hundred percent, that the number of people who are making their living out of the fact that we have made readers of the people in this country is over three thousand percent. This, as well as promoting new business, has had its business adjustment value that has taken thousands of people out of competition with other lines of work, and this type of adjustment has been extremely valuable in this country because every year labor-saving machinery ruins the work that many people have prepared themselves to do and they find it necessary to adjust themselves to other lines of occupation. The same thing that is said for reading may be said for music and art, in spite of the fact that many people are inclined to call them fads that are put into the schools to the detriment of the fundamental subjects. This does not mean that I am opposed to vocational training. I am very much in favor of it, but I also want the young people of this country to have as much academic education as they can be given before they start on a definite vocation.

When I give these reasons to groups of teachers as a basis for my belief that there is no occupation in this country more important than that of school teaching, I am sometimes told by teachers who are spending their life in grade work or in certain types of class work in high school, that it is all right for me to talk that way, that the position I hold has some importance; but that if the little job they hold has any such importance, they fail to see it. At times like that, I like to call their attention to the text which Reverend Talmadge used for one of the best lectures he ever gave. It is taken from the Old Testament and runs about as follows: "Even as is his reward that goeth down into battle, so shall his be that stayeth by the stuff." That was a regulation made long before the time of Christ by one of those old generals when all the reward that soldiers received was the loot that they captured in their campaigns. This loot was then divided among those engaged in the battles. As a result nobody wanted to stay by the stuff. In other words, nobody wanted to guard the baggage or supply trains, and, just as in that time it was as important to do that as it was to fight the battles, so today in the teaching force of the country, the privates in the ranks are just as important in the jobs they have to do from day to day as the principals or superintendents can possibly be. The colleges could do very little if the work that is done by the teachers before these young people reach college had not been done. I am perfectly willing to admit, of course, that the rewards are not very great, at least in the financial line, but that is not the only reward that comes from a work well done. When we consider the fact that many of the grade teachers and high-school teachers go on day after day, year in and year out, doing the best piece of work for the young people that they find themselves able to do, we realize the importance of their position. When I remember my own attitude during the first ten years of my school career, I cannot help but feel that it would have been better for me and better for those with whom I came in contact had I had the appreciation of the importance of my job that I came to have later. I feel that I am sometimes boresome in my desire to convert every school teacher to the same view that I have, as far as its importance is concerned. If we can once get over to the people of this country this view of the importance of the schools, there will be no need for further worry as to their financial support My own opinion is that we are making headway very rapidly as far as this is concerned.

THE PHILIPPINES IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

CAMILO OSIAS, RESIDENT COMMISSIONER FROM THE PHILIPPINES, WASHINGTON, D. C.

I deem it an honor to appear on the program of the National Education Association for the consideration of the international viewpoint in education, I am particularly grateful for the recognition of the existence of the Philippines on the educational map.

I chose for my subject "The Philippines in International Education." While the country which I have the honor to represent has as yet no international personality, the voice of a people like the Filipinos cannot be entirely ignored or disregarded in an adequate and complete determination of the international point of view in education and in defining the aim, content, and method of education for the modern world.

The Philippine Islands are inhabited by a people tremendously anxious to achieve their national emancipation and complete selfsovereignty at the earliest possible date. It is their conviction that the fulfilment of America's promise and the satisfaction of their national aspiration are essential and necessary not alone for their political wellbeing and economic stability but for their intellectual orientation and educational security.

Ours are a people essentially of Malayan stock and Oriental traditions. More than any other people of the Orient, and for a longer period, the Filipinos have come in intimate contact with the civilization of the Occident. Possessed of an alphabet, a system of writing, and a culture of their own long before the first group of Europeans took possession of the Philippines in the name of Spain in 1521, for three hundred years and more, my people received the impact of European culture. During the spanish règime elementary and secondary schools and institutions of higher learning were established. The University of Santo Tomas in Manila, with royal and pontifical sanction, was founded in 1611 or twenty-five years before Harvard University. Some colleges of the Islands have a history as old as some of the oldest institutions of learning in this country. In 1863, the King of Spain issued his famous royal educational decree which was responsible for the establishment of a nationwide system of public schools. It resulted in the establishment of a school for boys and a school for girls in practically every town of the Philippines.

Toward the third quarter of the nineteenth century, we already had some 1,608 schools. In 1870 we had more than 1,779 schools. When thirty-two years ago the Americans took possession of the Philippines there were over 2,160 schools in operation. These bare facts give an insight into the early cultural background of the Filipino people and explain how it was possible to achieve under American-Filipino cooperation the educational progress which impartial American educational authorities have pronounced as unparalleled during a similar period in the history of the world.

The early American administrators quickly noted the great passion of the Filipino people for education. It was seen that there were no sacrifices too great for Filipino parents to make in order to have their children educated. In fact, this characteristic of our people was utilized by the American military authorities as a means of winning the confidence of the Filipinos in America's purposes.

As you well know, the Filipinos fought an unequal struggle for nearly three years against the superior force of this country. It was a continuation of the series of struggles waged against Spain to free ourselves from a dependent status and to bring about worthwhile social, political, and educational reforms. We lost in that war, but we made manifest our firm desire for national selfexpression.

Peace was restored upon assurances that America came to help us in our progress. We were assured by no less a man than the revered President McKinley that America went to our shores not to conquer us but to liberate us, to train us, to educate us in the art and science of selfgovernment. We accepted in good faith America's announced policy to assist us in the establishment of a selfgoverning democracy and eventually permit us, unhampered and untrammeled, to lead our own lives, and be masters of our own destiny.

When the military authorities themselves devoted their time, energy, and effort to the reopening of the schools that were closed because of the Spanish-American war and later the American-Philippine war; when officers and soldiers laid down their arms and conducted schools and classes; when American teachers came to the Philippines by the hundreds; when the Philippine Commission passed Act 74 establishing the Bureau of Education in charge of the public school system of the Philippines below university grade; when the civil government inaugurated by Taft as the first civil governor showed clearly that American effort was directed toward insuring our welfare, our advancement, and our happiness, the Filipinos earnestly gave their cooperation in order that the ends of a free and democratic government might be best solved.

Education has been truly the handmaiden of the democratic movement in the Philippines. Our main objectives of educational endeavor have been to offer opportunity for free elementary education to every child of school age; to conduct the necessary secondary schools maintained partly from taxes and from fees borne either directly or indirectly by those benefited; and to maintain higher institutions of learning for the development of leadership in the various lines of activity in our national life. In order successfully to carry out our educational program, laws were enacted for its adequate financing. The municipal governments set aside for schools at least twenty-five percent of the annual appropriations. The national or insular government devotes approximately thirty percent of its annual budget to the support and maintenance of education. The Philippine Legislature from its organization has always been liberal in appropriating money for the education of the masses.

Let me now briefly mention certain tangible evidences of educational progress. There are today in the Islands over 8,000 schools both public and private, some 30,000 teachers all of whom are Filipinos with the exception of 293 Americans, with an enrolment of approximately 1,250,000. The textbooks used are written in English and instruction is carried on in the English language from the lowest grade. The record of literacy in the Philippines today is better than that of Spain, Mexico, or any one of the South American republics or any one of the countries in the Orient except one, and it is better than that of thirty-seven nations which are independent.

The curriculum of the Philippine public schools includes the academic features of similar institutions elsewhere. Vocational education has been made a part and parcel of our system of education. There are prevocational and strictly vocational courses offered. Physical education is given adequate attention, emphasis being placed upon general participation rather than the specialization of selected groups. Commercialized athletics is unknown in the Philippine schools, colleges, and universities. Ninety-eight percent of the boys and girls enroled in our public schools take active part in a regular program of group games, calisthenics, exercises, and athletics the whole year around. Opportunities are also provided for training students in good manners and right conduct, social activities, and selfgovernment.

I shall now enumerate a few of what I deem to be Philippine contributions to education. Among these are:

1. The evolution of textbooks adapted to Philippine conditions in English among a people to whom this language is foreign.
2. The successful demonstration of the efficacy of the direct method of language teaching as evidenced by the fact that all work is carried on in English and it is now a common medium of communication in the Islands.
3. The development of a general physical education program enlisting the participation of the greatest possible number instead of merely developing a few stars.
4. The incorporation of a graded system of vocational training for boys and girls as a part of the school curriculum in the public schools.
5. The development of teacher-training institutions and the preparation of a teaching, administrative, and supervisory staff of Filipinos in a language other than their own.
6. The large proportion (about 30%) of the government finances devoted to schools reflecting the universal passion of our people for education.

I sincerely believe that the record of the Philippine schools merits the study of educators interested in international education.

Although notable educational progress has been made in the Philippines, there is one great obstacle to our real national reawakening. I refer to the uncertainty of our political status. I am not now speaking of politics. In very truth, I am discussing education. It is not generally known in this country that although the Filipinos are under the American flag, we cannot, by your laws, be American citizens. Neither are we citizens of a free Philippines. If education is for the purpose of training the youth for good, useful, and loyal citizenship, how can we train the Filipino boys and girls when we do not know for what kind of citizenship to train them? You will appreciate the reason why as a schoolman I am exceedingly interested in the definite determination of our status as a people on the basis of America's sacred promise and the Filipinos' supreme desire.

While it is true in a sense that education, like all science, transcends national boundaries and should be the patrimony of the entire world, nevertheless, I maintain that developed nationalism is a stepping stone to sound internationalism. Our people crave a nationality of their own that they may the better play their full part in international education. The true international point of view should be determined on the basis of the common denominator of mankind. In the crystallization of this common denominator the Philippines and nations like it must not be disregarded.

We truly crave the opportunity to be permitted as a people to make our modest contribution. Within the bounds of our own lights and limitations we must no longer be denied the privilege to apply to our education our conception of education whose trinity of aims is defined in terms of efficiency, freedom, and happiness. Will it be deemed unreasonable for me to expect of men and women in the field of education their genuine sympathy and active support as thirteen million Filipinos desire to have a place in the concert of free nations? The Philippines will then be a better laboratory for international education. We shall be in a better position to evolve a national system of education through the application of our own genius and talent, which shall embody the best of the Orient and of the Occident. The Filipino people will be better able to contribute to the common cultural and spiritual heritage of mankind.

HOW TO PROMOTE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

CLARE SOPER, INTERNATIONAL SECRETARY, NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP, LONDON, ENGLAND

Why do we need to discuss this problem of internationalism? Because, as was said recently at Geneva, "The world has just become conscious of itself, not as a composite of nations, but as a world." We can see that industry and commerce are being forced into practical internationalism by sheer necessity; they are welding the world into a material unit. It is urgent that a parallel cooperation should take place within educational and cultural spheres. The new world unit needs a new type of mind to function in it. It is for the teacher to seek ways of cultivating that new type of mind in the young who will have to live in this new world and face increasingly complex world problems. As H. G. Wells has said, we are witnessing today a race between education and catastrophe.

It is my belief, however, that the international attitude cannot be taught, that like other great experiences such as religion and love it can only be conveyed from one person to another; it is a matter of contagion, not a matter of any statement of facts. Here we come to the problem of the teacher, for unless the teacher has some degree of world consciousness, nothing of permanent value can be conveyed to the school concerning internationalism.

Internationalism begins with the individual. The individual problem is the world problem, for it is ultimately through the individual that the world can be changed. It may be that the best point at which to arouse enthusiasm for internationalism in the teacher is through some subject in which he is naturally interested and through which the implications of internationalism come most vitally.

For instance, modern developments in science, education, psychology, and philosophy all sound the note of unity. Science has discovered the "unity of matter—the protoplasmic unity of life—and the pervasiveness of mind." Psychology is occupying itself with the study of "wholeness" and in education are we not beginning to see the child—when we study him scientifically—as a "focus of relationships"? Further, internationalism is a practical application of the ancient (and modern) philosophy of the unity of life; it is an attempt to escape the "separation that is the root of sorrow." The great religious teachers have never preached brotherhood as an artificial idea. It is an expression in human relations of the law of life.

What can we as individuals do in order that internationalism may become part of the texture of our lives? First, it is important that we do some work upon our own intimate thinking. It is quite fundamental sometimes to draw apart from the stress of daily life and try to reach a disinterested point of view, a disinterested standard of thought, that belongs to no country, no nationality, no religion, and no sect. It is almost impossible to gain this, but it is good to try to get away from the immediate and take a view of the whole, of the future, of life as far as we can see it. We know, when we stop to think, that our lives are dependent upon the ends of the earth, but we do not consistently act upon this knowledge. We have to make an effort to bring international thinking into line with international facts.

We have not only the mind to deal with; there is the emotional factor. We have to feel international and to strengthen our emotional discipline by definitely cultivating the art of liking our immediate neighbors. Emerson has said "Alone we are whole but when we meet we become fractions." We have to learn the art of being fractions.

A story is told in a pamphlet, published by the Friends Peace Committee, of a man who at a conference stood beside a stall displaying peace literature and shouted continuously "No More War" in order to attract attention to the stall. Presently a little Serbian boy passed along and the man said to his companion, "Look at that little mucker, he's a Serbian—the dirtiest lot of people on the earth. Not one of them should be allowed in this country." The writer of the story goes on to say that "attitude" is obviously more important than "concept." We must develop attitudes, and attitudes are the result of experience.

Here we come face to face with some of the fundamental changes that are permeating our conception of education. True internationalism must be the development of an attitude, of a habit of approach; it must be intrinsic and of lasting value to the individual through his whole life. Such fundamental effects can be produced only if the whole of our education is based on principles the same as those implicit in internationalism.

What are some of these principles? They are admirably outlined in Professor D. A. Prescott's recent book, *Education and International Relations*. We are coming to regard the child and not subjectmatter as the center of the school. This conception is followed by important implications:

1. The child learns best through direct experience.
2. The child is an active organism—there is a perpetual give and take between him and his environment. The school, therefore, becomes a place of active research rather than of instruction poured in by the teacher. The child learns how to attack problems, how to work upon their solution with his group. There is free scope for the individual plus cooperation with the group. Children develop the habit of going to sources, of weighing facts, of estimating bias.
3. Learning takes place around centers of interest that grow naturally out of the child's life. There is an attempt to understand the problems of the immediate life around him.

Then there is the growing attempt to consider the child as a whole, to educate him as a whole and not as a series of isolated faculties. There is an increasing recognition of and respect for individual uniqueness, and an effort to develop this in harmonious relationship to the group.

There are the problems of the integration of personality. All these questions are fundamental if we are to prepare the next generation to live in an integrated world. Our young people must be trained to make their own judgments, to weigh conflicting evidence, to see both sides of a question, and not follow authority blindly. As Professor Prescott says: "The replacement of the habit of accepting academic authority, by the habit of searching actively for the truth is of fundamental importance for the future attitudes of the people towards international relations."

There is an organized body of people with these new attitudes to education and internationalism with which the teacher can associate and so receive inspiration and practical assistance in the daily work. I will refer briefly to the New Education Fellowship, an international organization of teachers who are seeking to adjust education to the needs of modern life, an organization that gives expression to a great search that is going on throughout the world.

The Fellowship is worldwide with sections in twenty-eight countries and international headquarters in London. At its last conference held in Denmark over 2,000 teachers attended from forty-three countries. A report of this conference has been issued entitled "Towards a New Education" and prefaced by Sir Michael Sadler. What services does the Fellowship offer to members? It offers opportunity for the actual practise of internationalism. It offers personal contacts, information, international study.

Every two years a conference is held to which come teachers from all nations. Calais, Montreux, Heidelberg, Locarno, Elsinore have been the hosts of these conferences. They provide personal contact with the coworkers in other lands, and with wellknown leaders. The next conference will be held in August, 1932, probably in the south of France.

The Fellowship circulates information on experiment and research in the progressive field of education. There are eighteen magazines in seventeen languages associated with the Fellowship. Perhaps the best known in the United States are the *New Era* magazine, an international monthly published in London and edited by Mrs. Ensor, and the *Progressive Education* magazine published in Washington.

It is useful to work together internationally on specific problems. The Fellowship has set up commissions to study some of the more pressing problems that are facing educators in all countries. At present there are eight commissions. These commissions consist of representatives of different nations who investigate, report, and direct action. To mention only three of these commissions: there is a Commission on Modern Psychology and Its Application to Education; another on the Training of Teachers, and another on Examinations. This latter commission is already organized in twenty-two countries—countries presenting such varied problems as South Africa, Scandinavia, Poland, Czecho-Slovakia.

Now here is a stream of international thinking, working, and contacting of which individuals can become a part. The Progressive Education Association of America is affiliated with the Fellowship, and a joint membership has been arranged by which it is possible to become a member of both organizations.

I have not dwelt upon the many international activities which may be undertaken by schools today, such as international camps, visits, correspondence, League of Nations Assemblies, or upon the potent force for good or ill that lies in our history textbooks and story books or upon the need for study of contemporary history by the teacher because, although these are all important they are matters that are only a part of the general permeation of the school with an international awareness. Many organizations are concerning themselves with these details, and the awakened teacher can receive rich suggestions from them for classroom atcivities.

The first step in international education is the work we must do upon ourselves and developing with that should arise a basic reshaping of our conception of education. Then in order to strengthen and sustain our ideals we can reach out into cooperation with an international band of coworkers and so align ourselves with some of the new forces that shall link the nations inseparably and overcome the distances that still baffle understanding.

A REDEFINITION OF THE CONCEPT OF EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY IN EDUCATION

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The most significant ideal of democracy is that of equality of opportunity. We seek to develop a society in which neither race, nor creed, nor economic status, nor class, nor caste shall interfere to deny to the individual the opportunity to achieve significantly and to live abundantly. We were concerned in the early history of our democracy with the guaranteeing of equality of political rights for the individual. We soon became conscious of the fact that the right to participate in government did not carry with it the realization of the ideal of equality of opportunity. As much as sixty years ago we had come to accept in the United States the idea of free tax supported public education as essential to the realization of the democratic ideal.

The original concept of equality of educational opportunity was based primarily upon the proposal that no one of superior intelligence should be denied the opportunity to continue through elementary and secondary schools, through the college and the university. We had a one-track school system; the road for the capable from the elementary school led straight to the secondary school; for those who could achieve success in the secondary school, opportunity to continue their education was provided in the college and university. This school system of a generation or more ago was democratic in that it did not set up barriers that made it impossible for one to pass through the several stages of the school system. It provided, as well, in many cases, for free tuition throughout the whole school system. But the scheme was essentially aristocratic in that opportunities were provided for the most part only for those of superior intelligence, and there was a denial of opportunity to those boys and girls who were unfortunate enough to live in communities that were not financially able to develop the complete school system or in which, for other reasons, the provisions of education did not go beyond the elementary school.

Possibly the most significant factor limiting the opportunity for education to American boys and girls, even today, is the lack of financial ability in the particular local area in which they live. We still have children growing up in the United States who go to schools that are miserably equipped and poorly taught. In many cases the term is short, and the local school system does not carry them beyond the elementary school level.

But we are making progress in achieving our ideal with respect to the equalization of opportunity insofar as it is determined by support. Everywhere men accept the proposal [1] that the "state should insure equal educational facilities to every child within its borders at a uniform effort throughout the state in terms of the burden of taxation; the tax burden of education should throughout the state be uniform in relation to tax-paying ability, and the provision for schools should be uniform in relation to the educable population desiring education. Most of the supporters of this proposition, however, would not preclude any particular community from offering at its own expense a particularly rich and costly educational program. They would insist that there be an adequate minimum offered everywhere, the expense of which should be considered a prior claim on the state's economic resources."

In a number of the states within the period of the past ten years state support, based upon the measured need of the community for support for its school system in relation to the ability of the community to support a state standard program, has been provided by law. This means that large sums of money are collected through state taxation on a statewide basis and that these funds are redistributed to the locality in terms of their need and of their ability to pay. It may happen that in a given locality the state standard program will require five times as much as will be produced by the tax rate that has been used as a basis for equalizing the burden of support. In this case, the community raises one-fifth of the total amount of the tax rate needed to support the standard program, and the state contributes four-fifths of the total amount.

It is possible to carry out such a program without interfering with local selfgovernment. If the basis upon which state support is granted requires a local tax less than the maximum amount that the community may reasonably or constitutionally levy; then, after support has been provided by local contribution and by state support for the maintenance of the standard program, the community is free to add to this program or to improve it by taxing itself for this expanded school system. It is desirable from the standpoint of the development of the state's standard program and with proper recognition of the significance of local selfgovernment that communities be guaranteed this opportunity for expressing their ideals and for exercising their initiative.

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[1] Strayer and Haig. *The Financing of Education in the State of New York*, p. 173. Macmillan Company, New York, N. Y. 1923.

We have, in the United States, an interesting history of national support for education. Through grants of land and of money, the public school system of the United States west of the Ohio River was established. Free higher education was originally developed upon the basis of national support. In more recent years, special aid for vocational education furnishes another example of a movement to equalize opportunity and to stimulate the states in the development of their programs of education. National support has, for the most part, been accomplished without interfering with the rights of the states to control, administer, and supervise their own schools. Further equalization of the support of education in the United States waits upon still further support to the states from the national government, for in no other manner may we reasonably expect to provide comparable opportunities for education throughout the nation.

The concept of equality of educational opportunity has grown during the past few years in another most important direction. We no longer believe that a single-track school system provides equality of educational opportunity. In our more progressive school systems, the traditional elementary school and senior high school have been replaced by schools which seek to provide unique opportunities for boys and girls who vary greatly in their ability to acquire skill or knowledge, in their power to undertake precise thinking, in their capacity for growth in power of appreciation, and in their ability to do creative work. Instead of the old-fashioned elementary school with a single course of study, we have provided schools in which individual instruction is given, others in which groups are organized with respect to their general intelligence or special abilities, classes for those who are backward, delinquent, physically handicapped, and the like. For that part of the school system which was once merely a repetition of the work done in the first six grades, we have established the junior high school with its broadening and finding courses, with its earlier beginnings of mathematics beyond arithmetic, foreign language, science, and a variety of opportunities in industrial and household arts. For the high school, which was available for only the top ten percent in intelligence, we have provided the comprehensive high school with multiple curriculums, enroling more than fifty percent of all boys and girls of high-school age. We have added to the lower end of the school system the nursery school and kindergarten. At the upper end we have extended the program to include the junior college. We have paralleled the work of the high school with the continuation and vocational schools. We are beginning to develop a program of adult education which may prove to be the most significant of all changes in our school organization.

The recognition of individual differences has been the key to progress. We have sought diligently to adjust our schools to the needs and capacities of those who are registered in them. City school systems, small and large, have developed an organization for the study of the problems of curriculum. Teachers, supervisors, and superintendents, under the direction of well-equipped specialists, have moved our schools beyond the stage that they occupied when the textbook was the only guide provided for the teacher. More and more certainly courses of study are offering suggestions to teachers which will enable them to make significant adjustments to individual needs. Our curriculums are less traditional and more certainly related to the social demands which the schools are organized to meet. The interests, enthusiasms, and creative abilities of children are given a larger place in our modern courses of study.

However, the realization of the ideal of equality of educational opportunity will require a reorganization of our public school system in most of the states. The district and township school organization now so commonly found must give way to the larger unit. It is safe to propose that only when the local school system includes elementary schools and junior and senior high schools is there any reasonable possibility of providing for the individual needs of the pupils living within the area. This complete school system cannot be organized in a one-room school, nor can it be maintained in a township which provides a number of small and incomplete educational units. The variety of opportunity throughout the school system necessary for the significant education of all boys and girls is dependent upon the employment of competent teachers working under the stimuli provided by expert supervision in school systems organized and administered in such manner as to make possible the adjustment of the school to the needs of each boy and girl. The realization of this ideal requires that relatively large numbers of children be brought together in one organization. With the coming of good roads and rapid transportation by automobile, it is as reasonable to propose that the country be considered the unit for the organization of the school system today as it was to organize that school system in a district or township fifty years ago.

Our experiment in democratic education has important implications for the rest of the world. In some regards other democracies have outdistanced us. The provision, for example, for support as well as for free tuition, is an important addition to the concept of equality of educational opportunity. The peoples of other countries propose, without hesitation, that we are the only country wealthy enough to seek to provide education for all boys and girls at the secondary level regardless of the degree of intelligence which they possess. They look at our secondary school system critically because they fear, as do many of our own group, that we will provide less significant education for boys and girls of superior intellect. On the other hand, they acknowledge that essentially democratic ideal which would provide continued education for all along lines from which they may profit and at levels indicated by the varying abilities and capacities of those who make up the whole population.

The concept of equality of educational opportunity is significant for humanity as well as for the citizens of one democracy. We have to our credit the benefactions of a group of our citizens who have contributed to the development of education and to research throughout the world. The missionary enterprises supported by our people that have carried schools, colleges, and medical education throughout the backward countries of the world are a significant contribution to the development of a world of mutual goodwill and understanding.

There are today in other countries, particularly in Europe, experiments under way which may contribute much to our understanding and appreciation of a democratic school system. We and they, working together, will, in the generation which lies ahead, learn more certainly to adjust our schools not only to the capacities and abilities of our pupils, but also to the needs of democracy. Let us hope that we may cooperate in increasing measure with other peoples in the realization of the democratic ideal; for the welfare of humanity is dependent upon the opportunities for education provided for the people of the whole world.

THE INTERNATIONAL POINT OF VIEW AS A VITAL VALUE IN EDUCATION—PROGRESS WITH TEACHERS

FLORENCE E. ALLEN, JUDGE OF THE SUPREME COURT OF OHIO,
CLEVELAND, OHIO

Surely the transmutation of ideals into habits of thought and action is the main task of the teacher. The obligation of the teacher through all ages has been to establish a behaviorism, as it were, for the individual and for the race, and one of the colossal tasks which faces mankind is the establishment of a wholesome behaviorism of some habits of thought and action in the group with reference to international matters. I am well aware and keenly in sympathy with that branch of the movement for world peace which constantly stresses the fact that you and I must think peace thoughts; that we must develop habits of personal amity toward members of other nations. The task of the teacher cannot be solved unless he faces squarely the fact that ultimately wars are made by the acts of governments. The ultimatum which was delivered to Serbia by Austria was an act of government. The mobilization of Russia was an act of government. When the Kaiser declared the German Empire in a state of war, that was an act of government. When Belgium resisted the invasion, that was an act of government.

Of the greatest value is the building of peace concepts in the individual, but world peace can never be established unless those concepts are written into governmental policy and law. And so I desire to direct the attention of this great body to the practical problem which faces the teachers of the world. Here in this country our task should be, perhaps, a trifle easier than in other countries because of the fact that here the war power and, therefore, the peace power has long resided in the legislative branch of the government.

The American Constitution was the first great written constitution. But constitutions written after that time in Europe are still in force, such as those of Belgium and Italy which give the absolute war power to the executive. Publicists now agree that the placing of the war power in the hands of the representatives of the people instead of in the hands of kings does indeed, in the words of Mr. Mason, make for "clogging" instead of facilitating war. This century, therefore, has seen the rise of the idea that the entire problem of war and peace belongs not merely to old men who sit in offices and help create the hostilities out of which wars arise, not always deliberately desiring war but too often blundering into war, but that it belongs in the first instance and always to the representatives of the people who bear the burdens of war.

In my judgment, the task of the teacher in establishing the international point of view in this country must first be carried out from the standpoint that the war and peace problem in the United States is the people's problem. When once the growing boys and girls are taught that the people's idea is to control in international matters, then a large part of the battle in this country will be won. It was a people's idea that young people should not have their right to live snuffed out at the will of some monarch; that old men and women should not have their grey hairs sent down in sorrow to the grave because of the ambition of some mighty king. The stressing of this American concept, a concept deliberately written into the Constitution of the United States, the change of which was refused upon a vote in the Constitutional Convention, cannot too often be stressed in the schools of the United States.

Now what is the next task of those whose obligation is to transmute ideals into habits of thought and action? What is their next task with reference to international relations? It is nothing less than this, we have to change the entire governmental conception concerning the making of war, and that conception, the old conception, perhaps, never has been better expressed than in Machiavelli's famous discussion of what a prince should be and do.

> A prince should have no care or thought but for war and should apply himself exclusively to this as his peculiar province. For war is the sole art looked for in one who rules and often enables a man to rise to eminence from private station. A prince, therefore, ought never to allow his attention to be diverted from warlike pursuits and should occupy himself with them even more in peace than in war.

This, of course, is the old world's conception of an executive and his function. Then again, Machiavelli says:

> Here comes another question, whether it is better to be loved rather than feared, or feared rather than loved. It might, perhaps, be answered that we should wish to be both, but since love and fear can hardly exist together, if we must choose between them, it is far safer to be feared than to be loved.

The old world conception was that the primary duty of government was embodied in the executive and that his primary duty was to make war, to study war, and furthermore, that it was far safer for the executive, that is to say the government, to be feared than to be loved.

As a matter of fact, the world does change by the force of ideas. Victor Hugo once said, "The noise of history is caused by silken slippers passing down and wooden sabots climbing up the staircase of time."

No phrase could more succinctly describe the great movements of history. The rise and fall of dynasties, the fine progress of the race. Sometimes in our study of history, however, we lose the true music of the spheres by the outward noise of the personal doings of people high in station. Only when we rise above the level of the earth and look from the standpoint of the ego can we appreciate the great human movements at their true value.

Now, growing, I suppose, out of this old concept embodied in our own Constitution that the war power was a people's power, there came that other people's idea that if individual crime can be repressed, if individual lust for power can be held in leash by the establishment of law based upon ethical consideration, then the establishment of ethical standards into law between the nations of the earth would be the first prerequisite toward the erection and maintenance of world peace. A new note was struck recently in this and every other great country by the Pact of Paris.

One of the immediate practical tasks of the teachers in transmuting ideals into habits of thought and action is to implant those very ideals of the Paris Pact solemnly entered into by our country by a vote of eighty-five to one. The Pact of Paris will be found to be a power which makes it distinct from the old-fashioned treaty, hatched in the darkness of the foreign relations' offices. It promises to gather about it the atmosphere which has been taken on by the Magna Carta and the Declaration of Independence. It was not merely the work of statesmen, filed in secret archives, known only to rulers and diplomats, to be announced "after the event" to the confusion of the very people involved. It is a people's treaty and may truly be called the *vox populi,* an open covenant, openly arrived at.

Now what was the achievement of the Pact of Paris? It is very little recognized. It should be taught in every grade, high school, and college in the United States. The Pact of Paris should hang upon our walls with the Declaration of Independence, because it writes for the first time in history new international law, and begins to declare independence against war itself.

> Article I. The high contracting parties solemnly declare in the names of their respective peoples that they condemn recourse to war for the solution of international controversies and renounce it as an instrument of national policy in their relations with one another.

> Article II. The high contracting parties agree that the settlement or solution of all disputes or conflicts of whatever nature or of whatever origin they may be, which may arise among them, shall never be sought except by pacific means.

Without adverting to the colossal and terrific burden of war, I desire for a moment, from my standpoint as a lawyer, to indicate to you what, in my judgment, is the amazing achievement of the Pact of Paris.

It enacted a new law for each of the signatory powers. It cut away the right which nations have hitherto had under international law to resort to war not in self-defense, only, by no means, but for any cause. I could bring you quotations from twenty-five international law texts proving that the right to make war for any purpose has been since the up-growth of nations the prerogative of the sovereign, either expressly admitted or tacitly recognized by every writer on international law as it actually exists. Historians will say that the multilateral treaty was epoch-making because it wrote international law in a field theretofore neglected by international law and in what surely is the most important field of international relations. The multilateral treaty changes the status of the war power in every foreign office of the signatory powers. It automatically changes every textbook on international law. Where the consensus of the authorities formerly was, as Hall says, that "international law has consequently no alternative but to accept war, independently of the justice of its origin, as a relation which the parties to it may set up if they choose," now all international law textbooks have to add, "but the great powers have now, in the Pact of Paris, solemnly renounced this right and covenanted to seek the solution of every controversy of whatever kind or origin only by pacific means."

Why do I say that the task of our age is to implant and vitalize this treaty? I say it because a great and distinguished representative of our defense forces, coming back from England, stated that we had to have a certain number of vessels in order to make war upon Japan, because we would have to travel twice as far to attack Japan as she to attack us, thereby indicating that that treaty was partially, at least, written with the idea that America has not renounced her sovereign right to make war along with the other nations of the world, but that she intends to be armed so that she cannot only defend but attack.

If once during the London Conference America had said, "We meant the thing that we wrote in the Pact of Paris; we meant the things that President Hoover said when he said 'No' to the National Congress; it is law for us; when you, England, propose to abolish the battleship, we accept your offer," is there any doubt but what the cause of disarmament would have been advanced one hundred years?

In addition to emphasis upon the fact that in this country the war power lies with the people and that we nullify our obligation and fail to perform our civic duty unless we cooperate with the President in shaping our foreign policies, in addition to the fact that we have to vitalize the Pact of Paris and make it the basis of all future negotiations, we have to bear in mind that without the support of the people, without the support of the electors, great measures in international law will fail in this or any other country.

The project No. 30 was submitted at the request of the Governing Board of the Pan-American Union to the International Commission of Jurists and was meant to be submitted at the great Pan-American Conference at Havana. It was drafted by a Commission headed by James Brown Scott, one of the greatest thinkers on international law. This project No. 30 went very far in establishing law with teeth in it for international relations. The law has always been between you and me that if I steal your watch, I get no title to that watch. If I sell your watch to John Jones for $30 and you find that John Jones has your watch, you can go and take your watch from him because a thief can have no title to property that he steals. The law has always been with reference to stealing between nations that the nation which conquers and subjugates another territory gets title to that territory. In this great Project No. 30 the thinkers on international law of this hemisphere proposed that we change that rule of international law to accord with sound ethics in every other sphere. This was the project: The American Republics provided that in the future territorial acquisitions obtained by means of war or under the menace of war, or in the presence of armed force, to the detriment of any American Republic, shall not be lawful, and that consequently territorial acquisitions effected in the future by these means cannot be invoked as conferring title and that those obtained in the future by such means shall be considered null in fact and in law.

It was a wonderful proposal. It was a proposal that deserved the support of the entire American nation. But somewhere on the way to Havana it was placed in a pigeon hole and never presented, and when I asked one of the most distinguished men who works in the Pan-American Union whether that project would not have been presented at Havana if America had wanted it passed, he said, "Certainly it would have been because every Central and South American Republic, of course, would accede to that proposal."

The lesson of that happening is that in this country progressive and substantial advance will not be made in establishing world peace upon the sound basis of the erection and maintenance of law by the governments unless the people of the country know what projects are proposed and put their strength behind them. So that when the thing comes into the Senate of the United States, or when the proposal is made that it be pigeon-holed, the man who has it in charge will feel as one of our distinguished Senators felt with reference to the Kellogg Pact, that while it was a foolish piece of business, he dared not vote against it because if he did he would be hanged in effigy on every street corner in Missouri.

This whole question is the serious task of the teachers of the world. When the teachers of the world teach the practical relationships of the peace problem and the meaning of the great progress made in international law, then the peoples of the countries will demand that their governments abide by the covenants into which we have entered. When that time comes, when we abide by this covenant, then we shall begin to build a world community in which there shall be no situation in which the rules of right shall not govern, in which there shall be no group so powerful that it shall be above the moral law.

THE HANDICAPS OF LIMITATION

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I am now engaged in what I call the third of man's basic problems. I am trying to live for somebody—my family, my race, my state, my country—humanity.

A man's opinions are a reflex of his experiences. My personal experience may have something to do with my interest in handicaps and limitations—and the belief that the world is growing better.

Man's first problem is to live; his next problem is to live *with* somebody; his third problem is to live *for* somebody.

Civilization is a matter of peaceful and mutually helpful contacts. Education is promoting civilization. The best thought of the past said "live and let live"; today we say "live and help others to live."

The more clearly we think, the more wisely we act. Limited thought means handicapped action. Wise men have always known the value of wisdom and rich men have always known the power of wealth. The tragic and bloody revolutions of history have come because the rich had little wisdom and the wise had little wealth. But in our day we see wisdom and wealth uniting for human betterment. Leisure and learning are seeking each other's company. Limitation no longer strangles endeavor.

Wealth is removing the handicaps of poverty, and wisdom is fixing the limitations of wealth. Carnegie and Rockefeller, Duke and Rosenwald are but the harbingers of a glorious dawn. The limited vision of the past has handicapped man's progress towards that ideal of the ages—peace on earth and goodwill among men.

Let us take stock of handicaps that are being removed.

Work is no longer a penalty but a privilege, and aimless leisure is no longer a privilege to be coveted but a danger to be avoided. Machinery is killing drudgery. Electricity enables a person to command by his own efforts, comforts and conveniences that ten thousand slaves could not bring to the tyrants of the past. Conditions of labor are improving. But we have the problems of unemployment. The dispositions of men are growing kinder and more liberal though life is more complex and difficult. Education is our hope.

The National Industrial Conference Board has done well in setting for itself the task of inquiring into the nature and extent of the maladjustments between industry and the public school system. Not that preparation for industry is to be the sole or even chief aim of public education, but that insofar as all boys and girls are expected to have some part in the work of the world, they should be looking toward the particular occupation in which they are fitted to give their best.

With the growing complexity of industrial life, this becomes increasingly difficult, especially when further complicated by the social factors which enter into every child's future, not to mention the effects of environment which defy forecasting.

As has been aptly said: "Wisdom lies in the masterful administration of the unforeseen." Happily, the researches of science have made it possible to know more and more of the future that is in the child itself rather than in its stars. Vocational guidance to which increasing attention is now given by the schools is a step in the direction of the adjustment which the National Industrial Conference Board is seeking.

Each man has a right to work. Lowell says: "No man is born into the world whose work is not born with him." Work is man's greatest blessing, for the worst material misfortune of life is to be out of work. We are living in a new age, the "machine age," an age of science and discoveries. The industrial revolution has affected our domestic, social, intellectual, political, and economic life. One man with a machine is now doing the work that less than a quarter of a century ago required fifty men. These machines are and must be operated by trained laborers. Are the nations' citizens of today being trained to meet the new demands? Are the twenty million young people housed in our schools being properly prepared to meet the difficulties of our industrial, social, and economic life?

Society today throws out this question for study: Is youth being trained to meet the needs of a changing civilization? This is a challenge to the far-sighted statesmen and frontier thinkers of nations today. The school is the only conscious agency employed by society to give the youth of a people experience in wholesome living of the most economical sort. Man must be trained to meet the changes about him and adjust himself to changing conditions. The effectiveness of any nation rises or falls with the competency of its citizens, and no individual, race, or people, lacking proper training, can hold its own in the battle of life.

The emergencies created by the World War of 1914, brought many nations face to face with the neglect of proper training in the mechanical arts of its men and, as a result, they failed to meet the definite demands of life with efficiency. Again, education must answer.

Health—Modern medicine has placed about the humblest homes defenses against disease and suffering that kings' palaces knew not of a hundred years ago. Yet we have diphtheria, smallpox, and typhoid. We have the knowledge. Why do we not banish for all these preventable diseases?

Since the germs of disease are dreadfully shy of intelligence, sanitation, the public health physician and nurse, the hospital and the full dinner pail, and, since the germs of disease are comfortably at home with ignorance and superstition, dark corners, unsanitary homes and communities, would it not be good business to double, or even quadruple the amount being spent on education, sanitation, and public health services, thereby saving millions annually from economic loss? Why limit this service to sections or groups? Again, education must answer.

Economics—Economics is one of the oldest and most troublesome problems of human contact. When everybody has enough to eat, and everybody is satisfied with enough, the ultimate goal of civilization will be reached. Economics has become a college major but we still have millionaires and paupers. Why?

The knowledge that, regardless of one's aptitudes, one's achievement must be made in certain restricted areas of human activity tends to deaden one's aspirations and to paralyze one's initiative. Why should one with a natural aptitude for mechanics aspire to be technically trained in mechanics, if he knows that the reward is to be a position as an unskilled laborer?

The chief handicap of limitation is the development of an attitude of cynicism, which results from denying man an opportunity to develop within the range of his capacities.

Intellectual advancement seems a positive fact, and yet intolerance and prejudice are active and dangerous factors of our religious and racial life. It is said that the Sherman mob was led by college youths under twenty-five. Why? Civilization must mark time till education answers!

The deepest tragedy of civilization is the attitude of the average mind towards new or unfamiliar truth. Ignorance scents danger in novelty. Education is the only remedy. Education means widening horizons. The point of view is vital. The radii of our circles of interest grow longer and longer as the field of our vision extends. Intercourse means interdependence. Psychology breeds as many contagions as pathology. Thought is dynamic. Ideas are explosive. The brotherhood of man comprehends the sisterhood of woman. International exploitation is no safer foundation for peace and prosperity than intranational oppression. There is but one species of man, only one human family, and human welfare is the only legitimate goal of education, the only safe foundation for human endeavor. Intelligence must guide our intentions and love of truth must warm our enthusiasm. Only then will man formulate a creed that will control conduct and establish a government that will do justice. In the last analysis, the benefits of civilization are for all or for none.

How long will men continue to defeat themselves by seeking to limit others? How long will men continue to destroy their own ideals by seeking to deny opportunity to others?

Crime and immorality are the great handicaps of our civilization. These handicaps arise from the limitations we have set upon our ethical and economic thinking. As long as men evade the Golden Rule so long will they miss the pearl of great price.

Limitation is a form of suppressing truth, and suppressed truth is always dangerous. It is firing a boiler without a safety valve. An explosion is always in the offing.

One of the great difficulties of the age is to be found in the narrowness of the perspective of people. Our world is too small. Our provincialism limits our vision. Narrowness makes us mean. Breadth of opinion, world outlook, and internationalism break down prejudice, race barriers, and limited grasp. For us to lay claims on education, there must be an international outlook which links men with men, country with country, and nation with nation. In all of this there is a plan of culture which links men into a brotherhood.

In speaking of handicaps and limitations being modified, in no section of the whole country is the matter being worked out in a greater degree than in the south. The south is now passing through both an economic and an intellectual renaissance.

Pioneer voices have cried in the wilderness for fair play to avail, such men as the late Dr. Wallace Buttrick; Dr. J. H. Dillard of the Jeannes Fund; Commissioner of Education P. L. Harned and Superintendent R. L. Jones of Tennessee; Mr. S. L. Smith of the Rosenwald Fund; Dr. Bruce R. Payne of George Peabody College; Dr. Edwin Mims, author of *The Advancing South;* and others.

A new day is dawning in the south. Coming true is the prophecy of Dr. Edwin Mims in *The Advancing South* that

> If to the sentiment, the chivalry, and the hospitality that have characterized the Southern people shall be added the intellectual keenness, the spiritual sensitiveness, and the enlarged freedom of the modern world, the time is not far off when scholarship, literature, and art shall follow, and when all things that make for the intellectual and spiritual emancipation of men shall find their home under Southern skies.

Both individual men and organizations are daring to think in world terms of social and civic wellbeing. Instead of being content with merely panoramic views of problems and principles, they have begun to get airplane views of the situations and from above see the picture of humanity as a whole. An ever increasing number of men and women representing the common herd and the finest blood of the artistocratic south is subscribing wholeheartedly to the philosophy that "no man is educated until the last man is educated; no man is free, until all men are free."

Let us, then, cultivate an enthusiasm for the attainable and be patient but persistent. The limitations of prejudice will surely yield to reason. The handicaps of race, religion, and social position will disappear.

The world is growing better and the Golden Age is before us, not behind us. In the midst of world civilization is a little child. Take wise and loving care of that child and all human interests are safe; neglect that child and all human interests are endangered.

EDUCATION FOR WORLD IMPROVEMENT

WALTER R. SIDERS, FIELD REPRESENTATIVE, WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS AND CHAIRMAN, BOARD OF TRUSTEES, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

World education rests upon the assumption that all peoples are intelligent and susceptible to education. Those who deny the universal distribution of intelligence must know that heredity contributes but 75 percent to 80 percent of our physical and psychical characteristics. This leaves a margin of from 20 percent to 25 percent of improvement of intelligence through environment.

Careful experimentation has established beyond doubt that intelligence is improved more rapidly under a favorable environment. We may confidently hope to uplift the most backward people by the improvement of their surroundings, by making the sciences and the arts of civilized life accessible to them.

The resources of the earth are sufficient to keep every creature in comfort. When we make the sciences and the arts of civilization the common property of all mankind, there will be throughout the whole earth such a conquest of environment as will provide food, clothing, shelter, and other fundamental necessities.

A civilization may be measured in its attitude toward other people, in the service it renders to humanity. In extending help to other peoples, we should not attempt to make them patterns of ourselves. We should develop their own genius by helping them to help themselves. Compliance with external forms will not affect the desired result. Teaching a man to wear a straw hat in place of a turban does not change his heart, his mind, or his thinking.

We can increase the production capacity of all persons through education. The vital wealth of the people of this country is five times the material wealth. Increase in education will increase that multiple. There are people in the world whose vital wealth is barely equal to their material wealth. They consume as fast as they produce. People who can produce goods beyond their daily needs are increasing wealth. Two generations ago it took three persons raising food to keep one man in the factory. Now one-third of the population can raise more food than we need.

World education demands an altruistic attitude of equal rights to all men, of appreciation for all men, and such a disposition of wealth and social structure as will create equality of opportunity for all men of the world.

The most immediate problem for world improvement is to attain for the people in a collective capacity the same moral, ethical, and spiritual plane as is required for the individual. Murder is wrong. War is permissable. They should be equally condemned. It is wrong to steal, but apparently not wrong for a nation to acquire oil wells and desirable bits of territory through acquisition.

Dante wrote, "Give the people light and they will find the way." There is a sufficiently large number of intelligent people in every race and clime to understand, to appreciate, and to lay hold of the work of modern civilization. Witness the remarkable progress made by the Japanese. Witness what has been accomplished in the Philippines in a generation. The more intelligent persons in every race can grasp what the world has to teach. They will act as leaven to those of their surroundings. Learning can be lifted up to become a beacon light for all the dark places of the earth. World improvement can be accomplished through universal education.

THE SCHOOLS OF HAWAII

VICTOR M. AITKEN, PUNAHOU SCHOOL, HONOLULU, T. H.

I bring you greetings from twenty representatives from Hawaii to the National Education Association. It is our pleasure to represent at this convention 3000 teachers of the Territory of Hawaii.

I have been asked to give a short talk on the schools of Hawaii. To better appreciate the educational system of this distant territory of the United States, come with me for a brief visit to the "Paradise of the Pacific."

Boarding a passenger liner at Vancouver, British Columbia, Seattle, Portland, San Francisco or Los Angeles, we sail south and west 2200 miles. After six days at sea we sight stately Diamond Head, the extinct volcano which rises from the sea to guard the entrance to Honolulu Harbor.

As our ship enters the Harbor, we are first greeted by bronze-skinned Hawaiian diving boys, who swim like fish and perform miraculous feats in the water. Upon docking we are received by the Royal Hawaiian Band and pretty flower girls who bedeck us with garlands of beautiful flowers.

Now for just a bit of Hawaiian History. The Hawaiian Islands were first discovered by Captain Cook, famous British explorer and navigator, in 1778. In 1820 the first American missionaries arrived from New England by sailing vessel. In the year 1891 the reigning Hawaiian Queen Liliuokalani was deposed in the bloodless revolution and the Republic of Hawaii established in 1894. Four years later American annexation was secured and Hawaii thus became a full-fledged Territory of the United States.

The people of Hawaii, justly, we feel, resent being called a "Colony" or "Possession." Some day, we hope Hawaii will take her place among the states of the Union. I was interested in what the gentleman from Alaska had to say yesterday about that very same topic. Now we are very touchy on that subject and if you wish to remain in the good graces of the people from Hawaii do not insinuate that we are merely a possession. We are a full-fledged territory of these United States.

The native Hawaiians are distinctly Polynesian and are considered to have been the highest type of the world's primitive races. They are as a rule splendidly developed physically; tall, bronze-skinned, friendly and happy in their land of sunshine, flowers, tropical verdure, and a thousand rainbows.

There are six islands of importance in the group. Inasmuch as they are located entirely within the tropics, these islands are indebted to the trade winds, which insure them a wonderful climate which never goes over 88 degrees and rarely below 56 degrees. They are also indebted to these trade winds for rain. Inasmuch as the Islands rise from the sea, in some places quite abruptly, and the trade winds striking against the mountains cause the winds to lose their moisture, we have plenty of rainfall for agricultural purposes.

The chief industries of Hawaii are sugar cane, pineapple, and the tourist trade. The principal cities of the Territory are Honolulu, located on the Island of Oahu, and having a population of 138,000, and the city of Hilo on the big island, the Island of Hawaii, having approximately 15,000 people. You would be interested to know that a day or so ago as I was coming along the street wearing this lei, an educator stopped me and said, "O, so you are from Hay-waii?"

I said, "Yes, I am from Haw*ee*."

He said, "Now tell me, have you any automobiles in Hawaii?"

I said, "Certainly. We have, I believe, in the city of Honolulu 35,000 automobiles on our last registration. So we really have motor cars on the Island."

There are approximately 360,000 people in the territory. Of this number about 25,000 are Hawaiians, 40,000 Caucasians, 130,000 Japanese, 63,000 Filipinos and 25,000 Chinese. Japanese and Filipino laborers are employed almost exclusively on the extensive pineapple and sugar cane plantations. The balance, to make up the total is composed of mixed races.

Last year, Hawaii paid, I believe, more in federal taxes than fourteen of the states. This gives you some idea of the wealth of the territory.

On our sight-seeing trip, we would, of course, visit the sugar cane, pineapple, and banana plantations. We would swim and surf at Waikiki and other beaches of Oahu. We would visit the largest extinct volcano in the world, Haeakala on the Island of Maui. We would exclaim over the beauties of Waimea Canyon and the Barking Sands of Kauai. We would marvel at the lava tubes and fern forests of the Hawaiian National Park on the Island of Hawaii and stand in awe at the crater of Kilanea Volcano, also on the Island of Hawaii.

And now for the schools of Hawaii. With the exception of the cities of Honolulu and Hilo the people of the Islands live largely in small towns or villages and children come to centrally located high schools and grammar schools in auto buses as the roads of the Territory are well developed.

The schools of Hawaii are well organized from the standpoint of curriculum and teaching methods. Teachers are well trained and are all graduates of a recognized normal school or hold the equivalent of an A. B. degree from the University of Hawaii or some mainland college or university. Teachers come chiefly at the present time from the territorial Normal School and the University of Hawaii and they are, of course, representative of the racial groups that I mentioned a few moments ago. In the main they are progressive, keen, and alert. The many problems of education in the Islands are being worked out by practical, scientific methods in keeping with the best ideals of progressive education.

Industrial and vocational education is well taken care of under the Smith-Hughes plan. A department of home economics supplies school luncheons in most of the schools with student help under skilful supervision of teachers.

The schools of Hawaii are very progressive in the matter of dental hygiene. Dental clinics have been established under the direction of twenty-five graduates of the dental course of the Territorial Teachers College. Thirty-six thousand children were treated last year at the various dental clinics. School nurses guard the health of the children. Rest periods and the serving of milk and cod liver oil to underweight children are part of the program to promote better health in the territorial schools.

An experimental school has been set up in Honolulu to assist in curriculum construction, to carry on experimentation in materials and textbooks, and to serve as an observation school for teachers and principals.

There are few problems of Americanization in the schools of Hawaii. Regardless of racial descent, the children are American in the true sense of the word. English is, of course, spoken in all of the schools. Patriotism, love of our flag, and American ideals are everywhere evident. The youngsters of Hawaii are proud of their American citizenship.

In addition to the 187 public schools of Hawaii, there are several private schools—three, St. Louis Preparatory School, Kamehameka School for Boys and Girls, and Punahou Academy are the best known. You will be interested to know that in the early history of the Pacific Coast regions and before the establishment of good secondary schools in Oregon, Washington, and California, many children were sent to the private schools of Hawaii rather than have them make the long trip to eastern preparatory schools. Puanahou Academy has for over 80 years prepared boys and girls for mainland colleges and universities.

We have been assured by Dr. Thomas, president of the World Federation of Education Associations, that the regional conference of the World Federation will be held in Honolulu during the summer of 1932. Let me extend to all of you a most cordial invitation to visit Hawaii during the time of the convention. I assure you that you will be received with true Hawaiian hospitality.

Mark Twain, returning in memory to Hawaii, the one land in all the world that had an abiding heart appeal for him, wrote: "For me, its balmy airs are always blowing, its summer seas flashing in the sun; the pulsing of its surf beats in my ear; I can see its garlanded crags; in my nostrils lives the breath of flowers that perished twenty years ago! Aloha! Aloha! Aloha nui, Nui!"

THE ART OF LIVING AS A VITAL VALUE IN EDUCATION

ELIZABETH HALL, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
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Training in the art of living is not to be found among the required courses in normal schools and colleges of education but those of us who have been teaching for many years often wish it were. Certainly, acquiring skill in living is an art which a teacher should consider fundamental to his preparation for teaching. One may go further and say that those who have no aptitude for this art ought never to enter the teaching profession. The artist in teaching must first be an artist in living.

As one can only acquire the art of living by living, it is evident that the student who is preparing for teaching must have broad opportunities for participating in varied activities approximating, at least, life situations. The teacher must plan his life so that it will include wide and significant experiences. All too often, a teacher with rare capacities for living has allowed a professional wall to cloister his life, both mental and material.

I am sure that parents wish their children's closest adult associates outside the home to be wise with the wisdom which cannot come from books alone. I am also sure that the teacher who leaves the most lasting impression upon individual pupils is a real person who has lived among them and been one of them.

The changing character of our schools as they are being molded by the pressure of modern psychology and philosophy into truly socialized groups has greatly multiplied the opportunities for wider and more complete living for both teacher and pupil. And it is well that this is so for boys and girls of today who tomorrow must face grave and perplexing problems surely need the steadying and strengthening companionship of men and women who have experienced the joys and sorrows of our common lot; who have learned how to make friends and how to be a friend; who have made themselves adaptable enough to conform to changing social conditions and customs without abandoning spiritual values; who have had the courage to adventure forth among new people and new ideas and make them a part of themselves; who have developed a sane and serene philosophy of life by facing life's problems with fortitude and faith; and who have a deep rooted desire to invest their time and their abilities in an enterprise of service.

The mother who takes her little child to the kindergarten for the first time and the father who enters his son in college or university are both seeking those normal men and women teachers who enjoy the companionship of children and who respect the personality of each boy and each girl who is brought by the law of the land into the various relationships of school life.

Perhaps the young teacher may think that I am describing an artist in living who is as rare as great artists in other fields of human endeavor. I can only say that I have known so many teachers who can justly be rated as artists that I am impelled to the belief that there is something dynamically inherent in the relationship between teacher and pupil which comes out in terms of power in the teacher; there are potentialities in the vital contacts between youth and the adult with faith in youth which stimulates growth in both. Furthermore, in the organization of the presentday school, the freedom of the individual to make his own contribution in his own way, and the attitude of respect and appreciation with which the contribution is received by the teacher, encourages the child to show his real self, to bring out his gifts. He becomes a real personality and, as such, he is an interesting companion in the all absorbing enterprise of trying to find a northwest passage to the intellectual world and the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow, both adventures worthy of their modern heroes Lindbergh and Byrd.

But I would leave these generalities, attractive as generalities always are, and come to the practical aspects of an attempt to discuss briefly the art of living as a vital value in education.

The organization of a classroom into an effective cooperative group, working and learning together under the direction and guidance of a teacher, requires technical skill of a high order. The teacher must have the ability to diagnose the difficulties as well as the strength of each pupil and to set up a program of teaching which will meet these needs.

There must be a recognition of the relative importance of the teaching process and the learning process. The latter is the more important and should be given full consideration. It is not only a vital factor in securing worthwhile results in school subjects but in the determination of conduct. Thus teaching problems and behavior problems are often closely related.

I would like to mention specifically a related group of skills and abilities which must be acquired by the teacher however skilful and well-trained in school procedures and technics he may be, that is, if he accepts, as I am confident he will, the thesis that freedom of thought and of conviction are necessary to the full development of the child.

1. The open-mindedness which makes learning from others and from books a joyful experience and not a major operation.

2. A willingness to face facts and definite situations even when they make difficult adjustments imperative.

3. Freedom from the benumbing and belittling effects of stubborness, false pride, and prejudice.

4. Tolerance which is not merely an intellectual accomplishment but a practical application to daily problems. Respect for the opinions of others, not a merely courteous deference, but the ability to listen and to understand the opinions of others even when they are opposed to one's own.

5. Honesty in evaluating one's own conduct and, hardest of all, one's motives; an exercise which will place one in the right attitude toward others, especially those who are younger and less experienced.

6. Imagination which enables one to get the other's point of view, to understand his urges. In short, to put one's self in the place of another, not as a religious duty but with the anticipation of the traveler in a new land.

There is nothing mysterious in the method by which these skills, traits of character, if you will, are acquired. They come just as other skills come, by intelligent practise. As a personal possession, they are well worth attaining. They mark the discerning and judicial people of the earth who are leaders because they can influence the actions of others.

As a part of teaching equipment, they rank second to none, in my estimation. To no other characteristics in a teacher do children respond more readily and more positively than to these.

Indeed, their greatest value lies in the fact that these are the traits which must characterize the children of the coming years if they are to be able to face their problems squarely, think them through, make wise decisions, and think and act tolerantly in their dealings.

What we wish to have in the nation we must first have in the public schools. When boys and girls accept responsibility for school business and behavior through their class and school organizations; when they are learning, day after day, to work together in cooperative groups, to participate goodnaturedly in free discussions, to evaluate one another's work impartially and impersonally, to test the accuracy and validity of statements made in class or found in books, to compete with themselves rather than always with others, to appreciate and to esteem the heritage of the classmate born in some distant land, and to rejoice wholeheartedly in another's success; then they are becoming open-minded, honest, tolerant, freer from narrowness and prejudice. Through constant and purposeful practise they are establishing habits of thought and response which will surely serve them well in the days to come.

Is not each child in America entitled to an efficient teacher who is an artist in living? One like the schoolmaster George William Curtis described in *Prue and I* so long ago.

> My grandmother sent me to school but I looked at the master, and saw that he was a smooth round ferule, or an improper noun, or a vulgar fraction, and refused to obey him. Or he was a piece of string, a rag, a willow wand, and I had a contemptuous pity. But one was a well of cool, deep water, and looking suddenly in, one day, I saw the stars.

THUMB PRINTS

M. G. CLARK, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SIOUX CITY, IOWA

One of the most striking features of the recent education convention at Atlantic City was the scene in the spectacular pageant typifying the menace of our developing machine age. In the center of an immense stage stood a gigantic iron man who directed with the clank of iron hands and the flash of fire-lit eyes the movements of some hundreds of small human machines. The actors were costumed to represent parts of machinery. Their cogwheel helmets represented the machine control of mental abilities. The mechanized legs, arms, and bodies represented the control of physical human life. In their machine dance, in obedience to the direction of the iron commander, these small human machines all performed in rhythmic machine movements. The cog-helmeted heads moved up and down or sidewise at the dictation of the raised or lowered hand. The mass-controled arms and legs extended and contracted in obedience to the same controls. With it all there was to be heard the clatter and the rumble of a mass of machinery in the factory setting that gave emphasis to the thought of the pageant.

The message of this part of the pageant, to the speaker, was a warning against the approaching dominance in education procedures of the demands of a machine-driven age. The efficiency of mass production, the economy of standardized organization, the necessity for rapidity of output, tends to mechanize the mind and hand. Each human machine becomes but a small part in the greater machine. Each performs but one specialized act in the production of the completed whole. The individual dancer may have but a small conception of the completed product. He may not even understand the ultimate function of the part he produces. The scene warns us that such control must tend inevitably to cause the atrophy of the hand and mind powers of the individual. Personality, with all its possibilities for individual contribution and for individual growth, is sacrificed to meet the standard of efficiency in part-production. If it is true that we are approaching the control of a machine age as typified, then it is just as true that we are approaching an ultimate anti-racial development through anti-individuation.

The gift of *individual difference* stands out as a supreme control through the evolution of the ages. Whatever the thought of the Creator, or whatever the law of evolution may prove to be, at least this one fact stands, that no two personalities have ever been created or have ever evolved alike. No two blades of grass and no two leaves of the tree are identical. The law of variety is so stupendous that it staggers the human mind to comprehend it in its magnitude.

Criminologists have built up what they claim to be an exact science of thumb printing. If we can imagine this science to have been established in the days of Adam and every individual to have been thumb printed from then on until the end of time, each individual would stand out as a supreme personality, different from any of his brothers.

If this is true of thumbs, how manifestly is it true of human minds, of human souls, of human capacities for work, of abilities for the attacking and solving of problems, of abilities to contribute, through thought-power, to the solution of problems that have to do with the ultimate good of mankind. It was evidently the purpose of the Creator and the law of evolution, to individualize human activities and to give to each an opportunity to find his place in the social and economic fabric and to contribute to the world's progress something that should be different, unique, as the expression of his individuality.

There can be but one answer to this multiple creative purpose. If we are to preserve the individuation which has been stamped by evolution through the centuries of human progress upon all creation, then this multiple creative purpose is essentially fundamental to all education-thinking and to all education-methods. This law emphasizes the education recognition of three principles:

1. *The principle of unfolding:* The unfolding of that peculiar something within each personality which makes him unique, distinct, different from his brothers is essential to education. If, in the development of the education machine, we have a tendency to mold into a common image all children who pass through our schools, then we are establishing something which represents anti-individuation. Just here we need to think of the effect of our socalled medians and the tendency in our schools to medianize human activities.

2. *The principle of responsibility:* The responsibility of each for his unique contribution to the thinking and the acting of the group with whom he is connected and the generation with whom he lives must be recognized in education. If, in our education processes or methods, we have a tendency to so mechanize our thinking *that individual responsibility is minimized,* then again our schools will be establishing that which is anti-racial in its ultimate effect.

3. *The principle of creative activity:* The development of personal uniqueness and the responsibility which this uniqueness entails, carries with it a restatement of the principle of creative contribution. Creative education is one of our recent shibboleths, but perhaps no shibboleth carries in its slogan more of education-truth. *The thumb print of each individual* should be found upon the product of his mind and hand. We need to emphasize in education that no man can do the work of another. Each can do only his own work. His work will be his by *the thumb print right of originality* of product, of performance, and *by the thumb print right* of that creative something which resides in him and marks his output. This *thumb print right* is a challenge to the best that is in him to give of himself, of his thinking, of his planning, to the working out, the concreting of his own creative thought.

The menace of the machine and the study of the principles of individual development lead the thinking educator to the analysis of our presentday education methods and procedure. We need to check upon ourselves—find out to what extent we are forgetting the individual and thinking only of classes, sections, schools, and systems. We need to analyze our reports and find to what extent we are thinking in percentages, averages, mediums, and graphs; and forgetting that these are but mass pictures. We must remember always in the mass is to be found the small black dot that represents the individual, and that this small black dot represents a human life, the real center of all education. To but very, very few of these small black dots is the average or the percent of the medium or the graph made to be at all helpful. In other words, individual problems are represented not by the mass picture, but by the individual struggles to maintain or improve individual place in the mass picture which appears in the report. These mass pictures are satisfying to the administrator and to the teacher if they show his unit to be well above medium. They too often represent only a system smugness. They are of real value, however, only as their further analysis reveals the individual and the needs of the individual and suggests methods which may be helpful in the solution of his individual problem.

May we accept, then, as a general rule, that the most important factor in education is the discovery and proper educative treatment, *not of the* *mass, but of the individual.* The teacher must recognize that he has as many problems as he has pupils. He must apply as many educative processes and remedies as there are needs in the development of the normal individual uniqueness of his class.

The general rule just discussed carries over into the development of curriculums. The machine governed school provides a course of study to which all are supposed to conform. It provides tests and measures by which progress in each curriculum may be shown, but it seldom provides the means whereby the struggling individual may find a life rope whereby he may pull himself up to a vantage of individual safety.

Again, the education processes must not forget that the efficiency of human life depends, largely, upon the ability of the individual to make social adjustments. We need to make a more definite study of the activities of our schools from their social standpoint. The responsibility of the school and the teacher for the socialization of the individual pupil stands out as a responsibility that cannot be dismissed. At the same time it is perhaps the weakest link in the school chain. Every classroom knows the youngster who is not living up to his ability because of his timidities. We are prone to dismiss our responsibility by the mere statement that the child has an inferiority complex. We forget that it is as much our responsibility to aid the child in this problem as it is to aid him in spelling or arithmetic, reading or Latin.

The certification of our teachers demands that they shall possess certain intellectual requirements, that they shall have passed certain examinations or have completed certain normal-school courses or have attained certain college degrees. It is far more important that the certification of such a teacher shall indicate his ability to analyze the social problems of the group with whom he works, to understand those social problems and to know proper psychological and social procedures.

Every individual has the right to create. The curriculum that leaves out this element is depriving the individual of one of his most sacred and inalienable rights. The creative instinct is emphasized in the work of the kindergarten. We give it something of its proper evaluation in the early grades of the school, but as the years go on the truly creative in education disappears. Even in our English, as well as our science, we have a tendency to substitute for that which is unique, individual, and truly creative, exercises which only measure the application of rules. Our science and shop procedures are held within the definite bounds of prescribed socalled experimentation. As a result our pupils feel that much of our school routine is but a mere matter of copy-cat educative process.

That which is creative must feel the inspiration of individual wings; it must feel the inspiration of the individual right to express that which the individual thinks and to express it in his way of thinking. It must give opportunity for some experimentation along lines of individual interests and of individual desire "to find out." Otherwise, it is not creative. Little that is really creative is found in our high-school activities, and practically nothing that is creative is found in our standard college courses.

The study of individuation cannot help but reveal to us that the sum total of personality is synonymous with character. We have so bound up this character-thing with wrappings of semi-religious idealism that we have failed to discover that character is but the sum total of daily experiences, built up little by little, week by week, month by month, and year by year, into grooves of thinking and ruts of acting. We speak glibly of character training or character education as we would speak of training in arithmetic or education along any department of intellectual activity or of physical habit. We are experimenting with character training in our schools today. No one, however, even though he may have won a $20,000 prize would dare to write a practical teaching rule which would guarantee character results. Nevertheless, we have made progress. We know that character is not a mere knowledge of right and wrong; it is not synonymous with intellectual understanding. Yet, we must acknowledge that intellectual understanding or knowledge is necessary to its development. Again, we know that character is not synonymous with emotionalism, that form of frothy expression that wobbles with the temperamental ups and downs. Yet, we must acknowledge likewise that character development cannot be separated from those emotions that have stirred to the depths the life of the individual.

This leads us to a beginning at least in our character thinking. The individual must have an understanding or a knowledge of right action; and second, he must in some way be so emotionalized concerning those knowledges that he shall desire to establish them as controls in his life; and third, the establishment of these controls must be so deep and genuine as to become subconscious in the workings of his mind and hand.

A problem of education, then, which is of vital interest to us all, is to discover how these three factors may be blended in school experiences, so that lasting social and creative character impression may be stabilized into those personal idealisms that shall automatically control the child whenever he faces a problem involving the right or the wrong as he has been led to understand the right and the wrong. So far as we have gone in character training, therefore, it seems that we can safely affirm that until the individual has been emotionalized by a truth to such an extent that he loves that truth, whatever that truth may be, we have not affected him from a character standpoint. It probably may also be stated that until an individual has been brought to an understanding of the type of man or the type of woman which he wishes to become and has some way visualized within himself that personality, he will lack real character motive. It can also be stated that there is in the minds of all children at all ages an idealized life. This idealization may be that of noble manhood, pure womanhood, or it may be an idealization of Jesse James or a Chicago gangster. As long as that idealization exists it will control in the development of the character pattern which is in process of stabilization. All this brings us again to the conclusion of a former paragraph that "the greatest contribution a teacher can make is to discover the child within as well as to know the child without." He should, if possible, discover the character pattern toward which the child within is moving and then do what he can to set up such counter-patterns as may be needed to make true the pattern the child has accepted.

I recall one afternoon in Paris that as I sat studying one of the great windows of Notre Dame, noticing the harmony of its coloring, enjoying the beauty of its design, attempting to understand the message of its designer, a thought passed through my mind that I have never forgotten. This window was created by human hands, it was designed by an artist so many hundreds of years ago that his name is not now known. Yet, through the mind of this unknown artist and from his hand there came an ideal and a design that has conveyed his message to humanity through all succeeding ages. The window is composed of very small bits of glass, each with its individual coloring, its individual shape, harmonized in design and coloring to a perfect whole. The thousands of these bits of glass brought together convey to us a message that is inspiring, ennobling, and edifying as a mosaic of artistic completeness. On the occasion of my visit, a small bit of glass had been dislodged and had fallen from its place. My eyes, again and again, strayed from the perfection of the window to the space from which this bit had been dislodged. The mosaic of harmony was marred, its design was imperfect, its message was incomplete. In imagination I could hear this bit of glass telling its story. It was perhaps something like this: "For hundreds of years I have occupied an infinitesimal place in this window. I have never been noticed, no one has ever spoken of me; patiently, continuously, day after day, I have done my bit, sunlight has radiated through me to give to the world the message of my architect. I have not been appreciated. I see no reason why for the hundreds of years that are to come, that I should continue to hold fast. I am weary. I want rest. I am so infinitesimal that no one will notice my absence." And so the bit of glass fell; the mosaic of the window was marred.

I reason by analogy that the Creator has planned a great human mosaic which can only be completed with the end of time. This mosaic is made up of the millions and millions of humans who have each made individual contributions to the mosaic of eternity. Each in some way is different from his fellows. Each has his part in the divine window or in the evolutionary plan. From Adam to the last great day, generation after generation of individuals have and will continue to contribute each their part. The great creative plan goes on. The mosaic of human progress is still in the building. To those of us who teach, to those of us who have to do with the preservation of the great plan of individual complexity, there is likewise a great responsibility. The efficiency of the commercial world, the efficiency of the industrial world, the efficiency of the political world, may depend to some extent upon the establishment of masses of human machinery which shall contribute their mass production through the automatic reaction of their brains, their hearts, and their hands, but the mosaic of human progress will be marred through the loss of the contributions of the thumb prints of the black dots within those masses. The plan of human evolution, through the contributions of human individuality, will be retarded. The great creative force which resides in the creative abilities of the billions of living humans will be sacrificed as they shall be made to dance the rhythmic dance of the automatic machine.

Let us in the schools of America broadcast that truth that it is not the mass we educate through mass processes, but that it is the individual we educate, the individual to whom we shall give the opportunity of developing his mind, his heart, his hand, his creative instinct to the best that is in him, that he in his turn may give *the thumb print of his uniqueness;* of his creative contribution, to the eternal mosaic.

EDUCATING EVERYBODY FOR LIVING

AGNES SAMUELSON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, DES MOINES, IOWA

What is it all about—the effort, funds, study, and devotion to public education—if not training in living? To what end all the institutions of learning if not development in learning to live happily and successfully with ourselves and with others? Whatever our favorite definition of education, whatever our field of human endeavor, whether we look at life through the eyes of adventurous youth or those of sobered age, are we not seeking the kind of experiences, relationships, and thrills that will make our lives more adequate? Are we not striving to achieve lives of rich significance? What is the one concern of life but to live? What is the one concern of education but to point out the true values of life, to teach us to live?

From the Weary Willie beating his way along the railroad track to the unhappy intellectual who cannot adjust himself to life, are all kinds of extremes of people who are not at home with their environment, who have not learned that the art of living is a vital value in education. Some are so busy drafting the blueprints for others to use that they never get their own bearings. There are those who are obsessed with the idea that the world is against them; others are out of step with the world. Some carry their wild pursuit of new thrills so far that society must take charge of them; they fail to learn that the way to freedom is through discipline. Others are so dominated by false values that they do not face the realities of life or assume its necessary responsibilities.

The conception of education throughout the ages has been to teach the art of living, but each epoch has hung up a different signboard to interpret its meaning. In these signboards may be read the whole story of civilization, that reaching out of the human heart for something higher. Folklore trained the primitive youth in the mores of the tribe. Along oriental routes were stones of tradition and tunnels for caste. Classical nations built roads for statehood which even yet are strewn with the ruins of marvelous achievements. Out of the medieval wilderness was blazed a path upon which only the favored few, the scholars, could travel. The path widened to admit others selected for religious, political, or professional leadership. Social efficiency signposts opened the roads to the masses as it turned their faces toward a larger horizon. Universal education is the signboard now replacing the previous ones of folklore, caste, statehood, culture, scholasticism, classical education, and social efficiency. As each one reflected the dominant educational theory of its age and people, so universal education represents America and today.

This principle of educating everybody dates back to colonial days when our forefathers came to these shores and founded this great free government. They soon discovered that such a government could not thrive except in an atmosphere of intelligence, so they laid the foundations for universal education by establishing common schools. That the school is the nation's plan for meeting the need for the literate citizenship upon which our form of government depends has been recognized by all our great leaders from Washington's admonition "to promote institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge" to Hoover's interest in the education of mountain children.

It has come to be thought of in terms of equalizing educational opportunities. That is the watchword before every state today and the reason for the remarkable growth and development of the schools. The first battle was to provide free schools and open them to the children of all the people, daughters as well as sons. Then came the demand for the enlargement of the offerings in order to make the school program more responsive to the changing needs of life. Paralleling the expansion of the course of study to include normal training, vocational courses, trade and industrial education, homemaking, commercial subjects, health, art, music, sciences, and the social sciences, and other work tending to a more balanced and complete program is the reorganization of elementary, junior, and senior high school and junior college levels; the establishment of evening schools, continuation and partime classes, special education for handicapped children; and other developments. All of these have been further attempts to educate everyone and better to equalize educational opportunity.

The schoolhouse has always been the service station for the procession of humanity on the highway of life. Yesterday, to read, to write, and to cipher were considered the essence of an education and the school could do it all. If living an adequate life today means vocational efficiency, health, worthy home membership, wise use of leisure, ethical character, mastery of the fundamental processes and faithful citizenship, as is often quoted in print and on the platform, the school must be the service station to a greater degree than ever. If that constitutes the program for educating everybody to live, the school must continue to be the major institution in achieving these cardinal objectives.

Now we have come to see that education is more than a book-learning proposition, more than degrees and diplomas. It is a process continuous with life. Out of the need of better continuity of educational experiences have come not only the reorganizations within the school system, but also the preschool and adult educational movements. The present expansion of organized education at each end is a further indication of the faith of the people in education for living and their definition of it as a life-long process.

Important as the work of the school is, intrinsic as its values are, impossible as it is to substitute anything else for its major program, it must be reinforced and supplemented by other agencies, if education is to be a continuous process for everyone. There are two reasons why we do not have to quit learning the day we quit school. The first one is the discovery by Dr. Edward L. Thorndike that adult education is entirely possible. The other fact is that there are educational agencies available to those who would continue to learn.[1]

The library is a close ally and instrument of education, so much so that "it has often been said that the two legs upon which a democracy stands are the public schools which lay the foundation of our education, and the libraries, books, and other printed materials which are the means of continuing education throughout life" in the words of Dr. William S. Gray in commenting upon the importance of reading in American life. This challenges the school to place in the child's hands the key to the storehouse of the world's knowledge—the mastery of the printed page—and to cultivate permanent interests in good literature through vicarious reading experiences. Since the library should serve as the playground of the mind and share with the home and the school the responsibility for the intellectual development of children and for directing their reading activities, it must be more than a show place of book collections. It should be a lifelong continuation school, welcoming all without age limits who have the price of admission, the desire to read. In the continuous program of educating everybody, the library plays a big part.[2]

The importance of the press in this work of educating everybody is pointed out by some striking figures quoted by Dr. Gray relative to the increase in the number of newspapers and periodicals printed. He states that there were seven magazines with a monthly circulation of over two million each and sixteen magazines having a circulation of over one million each in 1927. With about ninety-seven percent of adults reporting that they read newspapers and seventy-five percent, magazines, the press is an educational agency of profound significance.[1]

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[1] Carroll, Mae, "Why be a Failure at Learning?" Condensed from the *Independent Woman*, July 1929, Edward L. Thorndike, as Interviewed by Mae Carroll, *Readers Digest*, p. 945, February, 1930.

[2] Gray, Wm. S., "The Importance of Reading in American Life," *School Progress Journal*, State Teachers College, Mankato, Minn., p. 2-9, January, 1929.

"The newspaper is the book of the day's history, the story of mankind on the move." With these words John H. Finley, of the New York Times, describes the work of the newspaper. He used this poetic way of saying that the best newspapers intelligently and accurately carry on the record of the world:

> I think God kept on talking when his Book had gone to press, that he continues talking to the listening sons of men.[1]

The use of the radio as an instrument of schoolroom education is still in its pioneer stages. A recent pronouncement by Henry Turner Bailey, director of the Cleveland School of Art, is to the effect that radio is the greatest asset to education since the printing press.

The poet Lowell in his beautiful description of June in The Vision of Sir Launfal says in part:

> No price is set on the lavish summer;
> June may be had by the poorest comer.

Just so cultural development is at the end of your fingers when you tune in on the performances of great artists at the microphone.

Art is penetrating design in architecture, homemaking, personal appearance, appreciation of masterpieces, and everywhere we see the university of art. Witness colorful kitchens, new skyscrapers, children's literature, advertising, and the like. Beauty appeals to everyone. Dr. Frederick G. Bonser says that for the means of developing appreciation, we can go only to life itself and find its occasions, needs, and opportunities for art experiences. We have the art problem and opportunities of contributing to the beauty of our surroundings by what we select, by the way we use what we select, and by what we can do to beautify the community in which we live. The need is to cultivate the tastes and interests so that we shall be able to see the beauty that is available to us, to appreciate it, and to add to it as much as we can. It is being demonstrated that everyone has the capacity to achieve considerable success in artistic expression. Everyone has a right to the kind of art education that will enable him to learn to know, enjoy, and select beautiful things and arrange them in good taste.[2]

The museum is becoming no small factor in acquainting us with the culture of all people and times, the advances of science and art, and a knowledge of ourselves and the universe. Man has always taken pleasure in collecting things which are rare and valuable and thanks to this instinct we now have institutions which have preserved for us the objects of interest and art of many ages. In many of the present museums learners are able to see a wide range of subjects including exhibits of all the earth's animals, tools used by all races and representative of many ages, besides costumes, textiles, precious documents, and many other curiosities.

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[1] Finley, John H., "The Newspaper Aids the School," *Official Report,* Department of Superintendence, Washington, D. C., p. 121, 1930.

[2] Bonser, Frederick G., "Art Education for all Children," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education,* p. 122, March, 1930.

That the great outofdoors is a powerful influence in the wholesome enjoyment and wise use of leisure is being realized by more and more people. Witness the exodus to lakes, the increasing interest in landscaping and gardening activities, wild life schools, mountain travel, hiking, camping, conservation activities, star, bird, tree, and flower clubs. Do you not covet for every school child enriching vacation experiences from contact with nature such as come from camping, 4-H Club work, and other activities? The core of this thought was stated in the words of President Hoover when he prefaced his recollections about his boyhood in Iowa with these words:

> I prefer to think of Iowa as I saw it through the eyes of a ten-year-old boy—and the eyes of all ten-year-old Iowa boys are or should be filled with the wonders of Iowa's streams and woods, of the mysteries of growing crops. His days should be filled with adventure and great undertakings, with participation in great and comforting things.

These words appeal to me as thoroughly pedagogical and pertinent. Did he not desire enriching experiences for every child and did he not also point out the way to achieve them? Perhaps the adventurous are not altogether the same. Experimenting with the radio, building model airplanes, caddying for golfers, raising baby beeves, going on hiking trips, fishing and swimming at pleasure resorts, and enjoying mechanical amusements may take the place of some of the unsophisticated fun he enjoyed in trapping rabbits in cracker boxes, sliding down hill in homemade sleds, bringing down pigeons or prairie chickens, swimming in the old swimming hole under the willows, or fishing for sun or cat fish. The principle is the same, adventuring and participating in good undertakings.[1]

These are not all the everyday agencies supplementing the work of the fundamental institutions in educating everybody. The movies, lyceums, chautauquas, lectures, clubs, organizations, parks, and travel stimulate thinking, provide wholesome use of leisure time, and extend experience. All of these are not always highly educative. The movie may show the sensual as well as the sublime pictures, music may be jazz instead of great symphonies, art may be ruined by splotching, chautauquas may imitate vaudeville, the radio brings the amateur as well as the artist and the destructive as well as the constructive performance, bookstands exhibit the salacious as well as the wholesome reading materials. Part of the gigantic task of educating everybody for living is, therefore, that of cultivating discrimination and of recognizing true values. This is a challenging problem for the home, the school, and the church to meet.

To evaluate life in terms of quality, to substitute true values for the false ones that block every worthy human endeavor—that is the problem of living. Are we so busy chasing the things which seem to indicate material prosperity such as brick houses, expensive automobiles, trips abroad, permanent waves, golf championships, fur coats, and new securities that we do not have time to teach our children the ten commandments? To impress upon everyone the fact that the art of living means the best working program possible in health, home, learning, citizenship, vocation, leisure, and character is the task in educating everybody for living. Life is more than a "scoop" story, a laboratory experiment, a case at bar, a joy ride, twenty words in spelling, the stock market ticker, a permanent wave, a golf championship, an advanced degree, baseball scores, medals and titles, more precious than "raiment or rubies," though these may offer the kind of experiences, relationships, and thrills that help make their lives more adequate to some people.

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[1] Hoover, Herbert, "Boyhood in Iowa," *The Palimpsest.* The State Historical Society of Iowa, p. 269, July, 1928.

Two significant movements have followed the acceptance of this signboard of unusual education and the interpretation of education as a process continuous with life instead of merely the limits of the legal school age. The one is the establishment and the expansion of the public school system in the effort to equalize educational opportunity for all children. The other is the bringing of educational possibilities to all the people by means of the various agencies of everyday life. The one dominant purpose leavening all these developments is to educate everybody for living.

THE ENRICHMENT OF ADULT LIFE

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Adult education is not a new problem. It is as old as civilization itself. The enrichment of adult life through instruction by lectures is the oldest method of education. It was the method used by Socrates, Xenophon, Plato, and Aristotle in the education of the ancient Greeks, and by Cicero, Seneca, Quintilian, and Plutarch among the old Romans.

The great festivals of the Greeks exerted a wholesome influence on Grecian life. The great ideal in all of these festivals was to develop a beautiful body and a beautiful mind in every adult life.

In the early part of the nineteenth century the method of instruction by lectures attracted attention throughout England and was called by Lord Brougham the "march of intellect." In America the name "lecture" was a household word as early as 1630. According to Edward Everett Hale it would hardly be an exaggeration to say that half of the people who crossed the Atlantic to America that year came because they wanted to hear lectures. After their arrival a regular weekday lecture was just as much a matter of course as a regular Sunday service. In such books as Winthrop's *Journal* there are more references to weekday lectures than there are to public schools. The enrichment of adult life was a vital value in the education of that day.

When Von Holst, the German historian of the United States, was asked what are the most characteristic American sights, he replied, "Go to Niagara Falls and then around a corner of New York State to see Chautauqua."

College halls and college facilities are not the only opportunities for securing an education. A college in home, shop, street, farm, market, for rich and poor, young and old, the curriculum of which runs through all life; a college which trains men and women everywhere to read and think, to talk and do—this is the Chautauqua idea. So declared Bishop John H. Vincent, the father of this movement. Millions of men and women have been enlightened and given a broader vision of life through its influence. It was the forerunner of greater and better things in the enrichment of adult life.

We are now facing the greatest revival in adult education in the history of the world. Hundreds of universities, colleges, normal schools, boards of education, parent-teacher associations, civic organizations, fraternal orders, federated womens clubs, church societies, and other educational bodies are doing worthwhile things in adult and parental education through their extension service, correspondence study, and lecture courses. It is conservative to say that millions of men and women are having their lives enriched today through all these agencies in ever-increasing numbers and efficiency.

A concrete example of the great things being done in the enrichment of adult life is found in the story of the Denver Opportunity School, that has attracted not only national but international attention. It is the purpose of this school to make it easy for the youth or adult who for any reason wants to learn *anything* to have an opportunity to learn *that thing.*

I first met the unrivaled principal of this school, Miss Emily Griffith, in a conference on rural life and education at Denver in November, 1917. The school was then in its second year of operation under the Board of Education of that city. On our conference program were such stars as Jane Addams of Hull House fame and Dr. George E. Vincent of the Rockefeller Foundation. But the most inspiring story told by anyone on the program of that conference was the one told by Miss Griffith about her opportunity school. I remember one incident in her story so well. When the Denver boys were leaving for the World War she was standing on the street watching the parade when one of the soldier boys, a student from her opportunity school, stepped from the ranks to the sidewalk where she was standing, touched her arm and said: "One of your soup boys, Miss Griffith, one of your soup boys. Goodbye!" And then, with proud and manly step, he marched on—over to the fields of glory, *to do*—and, if need be, *to die* for the eternal right.

By her inspiring attitude, by her unfaltering hope, by her undying faith she breathes the spirit of determination into every boy and every girl, into every man and every woman who comes to her opportunity school to do his best and her best to make the most out of life; and to do all in his power and her power to make this nation so good that to be a private, humble citizen here in this beloved land is greater than to be king or queen anywhere else in the world.

There are four states that deserve special mention for their outstanding achievements in adult education. California through her county free public libraries, Massachusetts, through her statewide system of extension education, Louisiana and Georgia in their illiteracy crusade.

The transportation of county library books is an interesting part of the service in California as described by Mary Dexter Henshall, County Library Organizer for the California State Department of Education. The largest county libraries have one or more auto trucks traveling daily loaded with books to replenish the shelves of the branch libraries and to return the books not being used; numerous county libraries are furnished with an automobile by the county, and wherever practicable the bags of books are taken to or returned from the branch in the county car at the time the county librarian visits the branch. Books are transported by American Railway Express, parcel post, freight, boat, auto stage, horse stage, pack animals over mountain trails, aerial trams, and in a few instances a book has been sent to a snowbound mountain borrower by a mail carrier on skis.

Massachusetts stands alone and unrivaled in her system of university extension activities under the management of her State Department of Education. Three hundred and seventy-five thousand men and women have been given educational advantages by this extension service since its first student was enroled for instruction January 16, 1916. Those who make up this great number of students vary in age from the teens to the seventies, and the territory reached by the service has extended from the Philippine Islands to British India and from Panama to Newfoundland and Alaska, but the majority have been men and women between twenty-three and thirty years of age, residing in Massachusetts, and representing practically every racial stock and every vocation found in the state, and every kind of educational background ranging from the primary school to the university.

In its twenty-one radio extension courses students were enroled from every state east af the Mississippi River and from every province in Canada. It is safe to say that these have been the largest classes ever conducted in America.

Dr. A. E. Winship in the *Journal of Education* for June 2, 1930, says that Dr. M. S. Robertson is officially responsible, under the State Superintendent of Education, Dr. T. H. Harris, for the miraculous achievement in the illiteracy crusade in Louisiana. More than a hundred thousand illiterates in Louisiana and Georgia are learning to read and earn delightfully and profitably, none of whom expected ever to read or write twelve months ago.

To use Doctor Winship's own words on the signal success of this work in Louisiana:

> All of these have this attainment because of the skilful management of Dr. Robertson, who has thus rendered the greatest service to civilization that has ever been rendered in the same time by any agency or activity in the world.

If there ever was a time when education was the chief defense of nations, that time is now. If there ever was a time when education was better than forts and guns, arsenals and navies, that time is now. If there ever was a time when the more a nation pays for the education of its people the richer and the more powerful it will become, that time is now. If there ever was a time when we must educate or perish, that time is now.

LAYING THE FOUNDATION FOR THE ENRICHMENT OF ADULT LIFE AMONG THE PROBLEM YOUTH OF CHICAGO

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It is a singular coincidence that a few months ago a man from Columbus, a man not directly connected with educational circles but an engineer by vocation, published a thought-provoking chart called the "Shift of Civilization,"[1] based as the author says on many years of avocational and recreational reading.

Much is being said and written about the increase of leisure and the necessity of training for its use, but Samuel S. Wyer in the Manual accompanying his chart states the matter in a unique way, seeing it as he does from the engineer's rather than the teacher's viewpoint.

> Our machine civilization has supplied man's ever increasing wants and has provided him with leisure such as could hardly have been imagined a century ago. In the hours of labor we do our duty. In the hours of leisure we have no duty, but abandon ourselves to impulse and inclination. How leisure is used, therefore, depends on impulse and inclination. It requires much more character to use leisure wisely than to merely work. There may be a direct connection between our crime wave and leisure.
>
> It is certainly true that leisure has not yet become an art with us. It is like any new gift. We do not know how to use it. The proper use of leisure has created every civilization that has ever existed. The improper use has killed each one in turn. The result of our unlimited, unorganized, unled, and uncontroled leisure is the gravest danger to which any nation was ever exposed. For the first time in the history of the race we are in condition to enjoy leisure and to have it contribute to our comfort, happiness, and progress. We must be prepared to possess our privilege.

Educators agree with Mr. Wyer on the need of training for leisure. They know that this preparation is necessary for the enrichment of adult life. Teachers accept as their own the duty of giving this training to the youth entrusted to their care. They will develop the knowledge that leisure is an art. The expanded and enriched curriculum of all types of schools and especially the exploratory courses of the junior high and extracurriculum activities of both junior and senior high schools are planned to discover and develop in pupils talents and abilities which shall lead to worthy use of nonworking hours so that our young people may become active participants in avocational pursuits, suited to their desires. When we reach the stage where a hobby has been cultivated in each and every boy and girl, there will no longer be groups of idle youths after hours of work, standing on street corners doing nothing, listening to unsavory stories, and becoming the tools of unscrupulous evildoers. To attain this ideal situation it is necessary to reach all of the children of the community. Fine though our schools may be, well prepared to care for the majority, there are individuals and groups for whom special types of education must be provided. There is the group of handicapped, the crippled, the deaf, the blind, the mentally deficient, for whom provision must be made. Then in every community, particularly in every large city, are found boys and girls who do not fit in, who are unadjusted in their school lives, and who are therefore truant and incorrigible and often well started on the road to delinquency. The importance of character training for these youths is selfevident. They must receive attention so that though problem youths they may not become problem adults.

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[1] Wyer, Samuel S. "Shift of Civilization," Manual, 11-29:8.

Like every other city, Chicago has been struggling with this problem of unadjustment and during the last year has tried two experiments which it is hoped will aid materially.

The first experiment is with the boys who are problems because mentally and socially below the normal level, but none the less valuable human material, and the second with youth who are problems because above the normal level, whose talents and gifts should be conserved for the good of society.

Before talking of these experiments permit me to say that perhaps we are doing nothing that you have not done. Similar work is carried on in many places, but until recently it had not been done in Chicago. Also, as perhaps you have heard, the Chicago schools have been somewhat financially embarrassed. No new workers could be employed. Consequently, the plan had to be carried out by reorganization and coordination of workers already in the system.

The first experiment was started in an effort to improve conditions of attendance. For twenty-nine years Chicago has had a Parental School, a twenty-four hour institution to which boys are sent by the juvenile court. The capacity of the school is three hundred. This capacity has never been increased. As a result it has taken weeks or months to send a boy to the Parental. Then in order to make room for others he has had to be paroled before old habits could be overcome or new ones formed.

In September, 1929, the Montefiore was opened as a day school to care for under-privileged and unadjusted boys of the north and west sections of Chicago, about one half of the city's area. Many things have happened in a boy's life before he reaches the point at which he must be taken away from his school for his own good and the relief of other pupils. In a large percent of cases the cause may be in the home; it may be in the school; it may be a clash of personalities; it may be the development of a habit formed in preschool years; it may be a combination of several of these. Whatever it be, if the cause can be found, measures for correction can be taken, and maladjustment overcome. Then, too, a study of causes and possible remedies should aid in the prevention of other problem cases. It has been said that every institution of an atypical character should have in it the germ for its own extinction.

The Montefiore was established as a laboratory school for the study and treatment of socalled problem boys. The idea of a day school for truants is not at all new. As you know several other cities have similar schools. All schools of this type have certain features in common. To all, boys are sent directly, thus avoiding a court experience. In Chicago they are sent on the recommendation of the principal, with the approval of the district superintendent. Boys vary in age from ten to sixteen years. Since it is largely an adolescent group, the school is equipped with shops similar to those of a junior high school. In addition to this set up common to all the schools, the Montefiore has a fulltime psychologist, recreation director, visiting teacher, and truant officer with a car, provided by the Board of Education. A fulltime dentist, a fulltime doctor, a fulltime nurse, and a psychiatrist when needed are given by the Board of Health.

The objectives set up for the school were:

1. Discovery and correction of physical defects
2. Cleanliness of body, mind, and speech, all of which were greatly needed.
3. Courtesy, a training in the outward forms, based on a development of real heart courtesy and the finer traits of character.
4. Fundamentals of education. These truants are retarded from one to four years, and every effort is made to advance them in academic work as rapidly as possible. The day is six hours long and the year twelve months. Pupils are graduated and transferred in February, June, and August.

Since the most important factor in the success of this, as of any school, is its faculty, teachers were chosen because they had given evidence of liking and understanding the problem type of boy. The principal is the man who was sent last year by the Juvenile Delinquency Committee of the Superintendent's Advisory Council to make a study of the treatment of juvenile delinquency in twenty-eight cities.

With the school less than a year old you may say it is too soon to claim success, and so it is. But already some things have been accomplished for the boys themselves and for the schools from which they came. The first objective, the discovery and correction of physical defects, has been attained in a large number of cases. All dental defects are corrected in the school. Other physical corrections are made at clinics. In academic achievements entire rooms have gained much more than was expected; for example, a class whose average time in school has been five or six months, has gained nine or ten months in its academic work.

A visitor to the school is impressed by the interest of the boys in their work, by their courteous manners, by the cooperation between teachers and pupils, and by the happy atmosphere everywhere apparent. Pupils in schools nowadays are generally happy but the happiness here seems to be of a different kind.

One boy expressed his liking for the school to a visitor who asked, "What do you think of this school?" by replying, "It's a knockout. Here's where you get a break."

Six hundred nineteen boys have been enroled since September. The percent of attendance for the school is 87.35. Forty percent of the boys have not missed a day since entering and are very proud of their records.

In addition to what it has done for the boys themselves, the Montefiore has relieved schools of the district of six hundred problem boys, giving teachers, principals, visiting teachers, and attendance officers time to do more efficient work with the remaining pupils.

Intensive studies showing mental, physical, emotional, and social histories are forwarded with the boys when they are transferred to other schools. It is hoped that these studies will aid the teachers in continuing the work of rehabilitation begun in the Montefiore. Again it is the regular classroom teacher upon whom falls a vital part of the work. The boy has started in the right direction to be sure but needs careful guidance lest old habits reappear and undo the good accomplished. Who is in a position to do this guidance work so well as the teacher to whom he is assigned?

Laying the foundation for the enrichment of adult life is as necessary for pupils who are found at the other end of the range of abilities. Thus children with extremely high intelligence and with superior social backgrounds may be in need of special education as much as the under-privileged and handicapped. To study this phase of the problem another experiment was put in operation. This was the establishment of a guidance clinic in the Sullivan Junior High, a school located in a very good residence section. The personnel of this unit consists of a fulltime psychologist, vocational adviser, visiting teacher, and secretary, provided by the Board of Education; a physician and nurse for physical examinations, and a psychiatrist when needed, provided by the Board of Health. A teacher for speech correction reports regularly. The dean of boys, the dean of girls, and the attendance officer present special cases for individual study and are guided by the recommendations of the center. All available resources of the city, scholarship associations, clinics, and social agencies are called upon for assistance.

The center serves the whole junior high-school community, including the contributing schools. Group tests have been given to all grades in one school and in others at the end of grades 1-B and 3-A. All pupils at the close of 6-A are given a battery of tests for the analysis of capacity and achievements, while data on personality characteristics, aptitudes, talents, physical history and status, school history and status, and significant social situations are collected and studied. These studies furnish valuable data for the different types of work carried on. They aid in the selection of superior and gifted children as well as of those struggling against a handicap. They disclose problems for the visiting teacher and the vocational adviser.

Group data are again collected in 7-A for use in guiding pupils in their choice of courses in 8-B; and again in.9-B a battery of tests is given for the measurement of capacity and achievement and a study of interests and aptitudes, all of which data are summarized in 9-A. This information is used as a guide in planning senior high-school and college courses for those who go on and as a basis for vocational guidance and placement for those who go into industry. The data, the interpretation, and the plans worked out are forwarded to schools to which pupils transfer.

These two experiments, one with the under-privileged and the other with the over-privileged, seem to be succeeding. They are valuable to school people because they are being tried out in the public schools under the direction of workers who understand school situations and limitations and because they are being tried with large groups for the purpose of serving the whole school membership.

If it be true that the public school is the first relay-station where unadjustment may be recognized and treatment begun, then the classroom is the real clinic of this relay-station. Special schools, guidance centers, clinics, visiting teachers, psychologists, vocational advisers, and all other means employed are but aids to the classroom teacher in his work. Who can estimate the large number of adjustments made and unadjustments prevented daily in our classrooms? The teacher is the one who deals with groups and is the most vital factor in the prevention of difficulties of all kinds.

Where his teachig load is small enough to give time and strength to study and understand pupils as individuals, the problems of unadjustment are materially reduced. The superintendent of the Chicago schools has presented to the Board of Education a plan whereby the teaching load shall be reduced gradually year by year. If this plan is put into effect and aids suggested in this paper can be increased, many difficulties of problem pupils may be prevented. The classroom teacher will be able to develop in his pupils abilities and interests such that they may enjoy an enriched adult life and add to the enrichment of life of their fellowbeings.

THE REVIVAL OF PERSONALITY

E. H. LINDLEY, CHANCELLOR, UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS, LAWRENCE, KANS.

I wish to take for my text a quotation from Ralph Waldo Emerson who about seventy-five years ago said, "Things are in the saddle, and they ride mankind." And yet, within a very little while following that utterance he declared, "But the lightning which explodes and fashions planets is in him.

On the one side elemental order, sandstone and granite (and he might have added, machines), and on the other part, thought, the spirit which composes and recomposes and decomposes nature. Here they are, side by side, God and Devil, king and conspirator, ... riding peacefully together in the eye and brain of every man."

A little while ago I rescued from the attic a book bearing a magical title. It happened to be a holiday edition. It was bound in silk and when I saw it again after the lapse of years I mourned the decadence and dilapidation of that silk binding. And then when I recalled the title and the author of a book who dominated the thought of the men and women like yourselves thirty-five or forty years ago, I said, "The binding is in better condition than the book and the author." The title of the book was *Heroes and Hero Worship,* and the author was Thomas Carlyle.

Do you know of any undergraduate nowadays making pious pilgrimages to Craigenputtock, that lonely farm in Scotland, the scene of some of the most creative activities of one of the greatest spirits of his time?

Do you know of anybody except specialists in the study of English literature of that particular period who now, as we used to, go down to Chelsea, to sit by the old fireplace where Carlyle and Tennyson sat and talked?

The author of a great biography of a great poet said, "I am no hero worshiper." Today Carlyle and his poet, prophet, priest, and king—what of them?—their mouths are stopped with dust. And in the opinion of some philosophers, the machines have overtaken us and ground us into paste. And yet, the yearning for the freedom of the individual is inextinguishable.

Even prior to the war, men were making the machine the scapegoat. Our industrial civilization was to blame for the "lost individual" and for "submerged personality." And when the machine was not blamed, our philosophy of nature was the culprit. There was and is a philosophy of nature, of mechanism, based on the rigid old atomistic physics that held if you cannot divide an atom, then you have got something pretty rigid, all the way through, even including the composition of men's minds

According to this view, laws of nature are rigid and immutable and man is merely a part of nature. And so the mechanistic physics dominated our thought and finally broke through into the realm of the mental and social sciences. And as a result, in psychology we have behaviorism—the reduction of everything that happens in a man, and to a man, and by a man, in terms of the secretions of his salivary glands, and the like. And a very important contribution to the objective study of human life it is.

Mechanism everywhere. A little while ago a friend remarked, "I have just read Jeans' new book on *The Universe About Us.* Our universe is now discovered to be so vast that it takes 200,000,000 years for the light, traveling at the rate of 186,000 miles a second, to pass from one extremity of this universe to the other. In a universe like that, what does an individual amount to?"

A man standing near said, "That is a very interesting calculation of Mr. Jeans'. But I would like to inquire, who invented the yardstick?"

Is there any evidence that men in the cosmic drift just float into some sort of ether that gives them calculus and the power to measure and to create machines that multiply their powers? Yet Bertrand Russell, a somewhat gloomy philosopher has said that there is conceivable, a perfectly valid system of measurement that would prove that a man, a given man, was as large as the earth.

One man's brain, Einstein's for instance, does not bulk very large in terms of the earth—indeed it is some billions of times smaller than the earth—and yet, men like Einstein across the centuries, have modified the character of this old earth considerably.

Napoleon, you remember, when the general returned with a defeat instead of a victory asked, "Why this defeat?" And the general answered, "The circumstances were against us." You remember what Napoleon said. "Circumstances? Napoleon creates circumstances."

And in these utterances of Emerson, and of Napoleon, and of this yearning of men for something else than a mere sharing in the life of animate and inanimate nature we have the most significant factor in our day, the revival of faith in the importance of individuals.

When the Great War came, this irresistible instinctive, wishful thinking of our race again asserted itself. You know how we all turned to the great man to lead us out of the wilderness, the man on horseback in that particular case, and he, failing to appear promptly, we turned to the great inventor, Edison. We would have him invent some way by which he could wipe out the enemy over night. And across those terrible years of war, when the great men did not come, and the visualization of these huge masses of men, millions and millions, came to the consciousness, there was a hopelessness that any human mind could span and master and direct those armies to victory.

That disappointment was acute. But note, there would not be disappointment unless there was hope. Hope never springs out of what has already happened. A machine may treasure in itself the shocks and stresses and strains. Steel has a molecular memory like that, but no hope, no picture of anything better.

And here was this inextinguishable hope of men that the great man would come; that some dominant personality would lead us out. And when the great military leader came, leading our forces to victory there was a revival of faith in men. But this was followed by the Versailles Conference, and the Treaty. In view of the nature of that Treaty some men became despondent.

Men like Philip Gibbs said, "The idealism of the world is dead. We are crushed by materialism on masses of men." Stuart Chase said, referring to machines, "We have a billion wild horses. Nobody has lassoed them; nobody has trained them."

Then a marvelous thing happened. A young man flew alone across the Atlantic and arrived in Paris, and all over the world men threw back their shoulders and looked at the sky as though they had done it themselves.

What was the miracle of the response to Lindbergh's flight? Not mere satisfaction in the achievement of youth, but a victory of a human spirit, of human personality and daring, over nature. It was celebrated around the world as a victory for personality.

Last summer I happened to be at a luncheon in a Paris hotel. A man who happened to be president of the foreign unit of a great electric company was with me and during the meal he pointed across the courtyard, and said, "In that room is a place where the Reparations Conference was conducted for seventeen weeks. I saw Owen Young every day so deeply engaged in that task of reparation that he turned over to others the negotiations for ninety millions of dollars of participation in German enterprise, and another almost equally great in Russia, saying, "I have everything staked on the outcome of this conference."

And my friend continued, "That conference threatened to go on the rocks again and again, and in my judgment two men saved it. Above all, Owen D. Young, through his matchless gift of conciliation, through the charm of his personality, through the confidence that all these nations had in his fairness, and Stresemann—he of the outcast nation. Those two men, in my judgment, are responsible for the Reparations Pact."

And there is Mussolini. Italy, desolated by the war, poverty-stricken, drifting, responded to the call of a man who knew where he was going. David Starr Jordan once observed, "The world gets out of the way of a man who knows where he is going." And I am informed that Italy is a new Italy—clean, industrious, wealthy, proud of itself and of what it calls its manifest destiny, because one masterful personality stepped into the breach.

And over in Czechoslovakia a little while ago they celebrated the birthday of their president, Masaryk. And they think in Czechoslovakia that their new life as a nation today is due to one person, under the fire of whose inspiration their souls, conflicting and warring, have melted and flowed together into a unity of national life.

Then at just this period came the flood of new biographies. Why be interested in biography if man does not count? Strachey led the way with his *Queen Victoria,* a critical, realistic picture of a woman who ruled Britain for sixty years. Critical! He painted in the wrinkles where they were.

Then came the flood of less significant biographies, less critical, some of them sensational, many fictional, many of them frankly debunking, and they had a curious effect. First of all, people read them. And as a result, we have a new hero worship. We have rediscovered our great men.

George Washington can stand scrutiny, but the trouble with the Washington that you and I knew was that he was a steel engraving. Pastor Weems, and the early biographers, had embedded the hatchet story so thoroughly into the tradition of Washington that every little boy who wished to be like Washington read that story of the paragon who could not tell a lie—this little modern, wholesome boy, who wanted to be as good as he could under all the circumstances, to whom a lie might be "an abomination in the sight of the Lord, but a very present help in trouble,"—this little boy was in despair at Weem's counsel of perfection. He could not worship a steel engraving, an impossibly perfect boy. But here comes the biographers, stripping away all these encrustations of legend and letting us know what sort of man Washington actually was. And somehow he was flesh and blood and no harm done to his essential greatness. Mr. Coolidge remarked when a certain critical biography of Washington was called to his attention, as he looked out of his window at the White House, toward the Washington Monument, "I see the Monument still stands."

Great men can stand scrutiny, and there is a contagion through contact with them if we can see them in the flesh. And therefore one of the great services of these fictional biographies, some designed to belittle the great man, had precisely the effect of magnifying the leaders of our race. So today there is a revival of personality and a new hope.

Some personalities indeed are in Hollywood; twelve million people a day go to see certain of these socalled personalities on the film, on the level of a certain kind of appeal which probably has not guaranteed any valuable kind of immortality. But it is personality. It is "it."

There is today in business a tremendous emphasis on all of those background qualities, personal qualities, a great premium now paid for distinction, not merely of intellect, not merely of executive ability, but distinction of individual excellence saturated with these magnetic qualities which make the individual's personality effective.

There never was a time in human history when so large a premium, perhaps, is being offered for personality in the workaday world as now.

Stuart Chase has spoken of leisure, and I do not need to remind you that foremost, the hours of leisure are the golden opportunity for the enrichment of personal life. That is true even of students. Outside the class room, what happens between five p. m. and eight oclock the next morning, is quite as important as anything that happens in the schoolroom.

Great personalities! Again we are beginning to see that not only history is the story of a few great men, but that science is the achievement chiefly of a few great men, and fashions come and go with the domination of the personalities who lead. And even the new physics is as fluid as Niagara, and the mathematicians today and the physicists are the most poetic men one is likely to meet. They are certainly most akin to poets. They are feeling again their kinship with those great, deep, mystical sources of truth. In the great inner world that is not always articulately conscious, that world that has fed the prophecies of the poet probably for the first time in human history the great scientists and the great poets feel a kinship. The common ground is this mystic bond, this matrix of personality.

What of the university in all this? Twenty-five years span the chief period of the attempt to measure human ability and human achievement, and methods of teaching, and the like. This movement is of incalculable value to education. But no discriminating person has for a moment believed that these measurements were mass measurements for the sake of mass judgments; rather these measurements are to enable one to better understand the individual and deal with him more intensively and intelligently. Such studies reemphasize the transcendent importance of individuals.

Now what of higher education? Released from a good many bondages of the old physics, mechanistic and behavioristic trends, it is turning unmistakably to the intensive cultivation of the individual as never before. The Oxford plan, the honor courses program, a host of other devices, and included, orientation, separate housing even where the Oxford plan in its completeness cannot be carried out—all of these are responses to the democratic conception, the new conception of leadership and of individuality.

Furthermore, the old aristocratic theory of leadership was that we have a very few voices and all the rest are echoes—just a few sulphides and all the rest of us bromides. A few universal geniuses—Caesar, Napoleon, Washington—and all the rest of us, followers.

Today we have the conception of specialized leadership. In the intricate life, social, industrial, commercial, that with its specialization of fields of activity, with more than 13,000 ways in which men may more or less honestly earn a living, the opportunity for leadership is as multiple as, not merely these vocations, but as the kinds of excellence that men may find effective within these various fields, for their own lives and for the lives of others.

In studies of leadership made years ago by Thurman he found that in a group of four or six children doing a certain sort of task would be one leader, and he would find leaders in other groups. He would shuffle those leaders and in the new circumstances and with the new task there was a new leadership. Contagion of example. And out of it grew the view that everybody has influence in some respect, and that somehow everybody must find an opportunity to lead and have unique success. And the qualities of great leadership carry with them the ability to follow faithfully and loyally those who excel in other lines. A great leader is always a great follower.

The university cannot define personality completely as yet. It is as elusive as the odor of grapes and yet we know through historic practise and the like that under certain conditions individuality and personality flourish.

There is no great development of personal life without rich personal life of teachers in the teaching—no other way but in the incarnation—personality as reflected in the schoolroom or in the extracurriculum contacts of the student.

Today, another great movement, that I must mention before closing, is the comprehension, the attempt to weave into organic unity with the great scheme of higher education the socalled extracurriculum activities. Just in proportion as we see the meaning of adolescence, as of great bundles of instincts, hungers and thirsts, high and low, just as we recognize the legitimacy of every one of those instincts in its place, and in due proportion, has come the attempt to weave these trends and passions of youth, and lead them into captivity by the great intellectual condition of our race, to humanize and to intellectualize this heritage of the natural man.

And our youth of yesterday, and until today, fed on the current literature of the caveman, are turning unmistakably, of their own choice to that other great party in literature, the party of discipline, the party that recognizes that not only lust and anger and fear reflect the voices of extinct but triumphant generations that speak through youth, but also there is within us a regulative passion, a desire to put one's life in order, which comes down from a remote past. Man is the order-making creature. And this hunger for discipline is all about us, growing in intensity ever since the backwash of the Great War.

This, then, represents the countermovement to the mechanization of life, and to the philosophy that grew out of it, and I cannot close without again quoting from that great representative thinker who represented the new freedom of this new country, Mr. Emerson, who said, "We call these millions, men. They are not yet men, half engaged in the soil, pawing to get free. Man needs all the music that can be brought to disengage him. If love read love with tears and joy, if war with its scourge, if war with its cannonade, if art with its portfolios, if science with her telegraphs through the deeps of space and time can by loud taps on this tough chrysalis break its wall and let this new creature emerge erect and free, make way and sing paeans, the age of the quadruped is to go out, and age of the brain and of the heart is to come in."

THE GREAT ADVENTURE

R. G. JONES, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CLEVELAND, OHIO

The chief end of mankind is power. The great adventure among men is the quest for human gifts, for human gifts spell power.

We find intellect, character, physical power, which represent the major planets in the human system of mankind. The qualities that revolve about these in the utmost variety of combinations are so varied indeed that no two persons are more alike in behavior than in physical likeness.

The work of education is to treat these varied gifts and qualities—to combine, improve, and discipline them. The earlier stages of education and training represent the period of the accumulation and understanding of facts, and the crude practise in their use. Later on, we harmonize these qualities and powers, and the degree of harmony and precision of action represents the art manifest in one's living. The art of one's living springs from such a vast number of things that the beautiful combinations are rare as precious stones.

If we believe in the efficacy of nurture, not only as against inheritance but as a potent force to improve upon it, we believe in education and, if we believe in it to the extent that we strive not only for the science of living but for the art of living—if you are in accord with the definition laid down—this represents an approximation to the maximum of life.

We are all aware that the material rewards are so high in this year of our Lord, that the fine powers of mind and body have been and now are drawn off to the upper levels of work in industry, commerce, the sciences, and the arts.

If we believe in the value of instruction and training in the earlier years, not only in words but in performance, let us inquire why the standards for instruction in elementary education are placed at a much lower level than those for secondary and higher education. The solemn fact is that we do not believe in the necessity for a carefully selected and highly trained personnel in elementary education, and we even tolerate a sizable degree of mediocrity in secondary education. We only chant the traditional phrasing: "Our best teachers should be in the first grade."

There are three simple factors that make for effective teaching: intellect, development, and training. These may avail little without active driving power. These are simple factors indeed, but no one can deny that these are fundamental.

There are three reasons for low standards in elementary education:

1. Tradition. The only education we required in this, our democracy, was a fact-finding education—the three R's.
2. We were a rural people and, in addition to the three R's, we lived in the open and education was everywhere; that is, education in the solid things of nature from which we learn to reason and deduce laws of our own.
3. It was the only education we could finance.

A change has come about in our living. We are an urban population. Science now has the ruling power. We lead congested lives. Our social condition is changed in our relations with our fellowmen, the work we do, the foods we eat, the clothing we select. It is futile to attempt to enumerate the changes. It is transcendantly significant, though, that many children know more than their teachers about so many things. If you have lived in a home with children going to school, you discover children respect competency in the schoolroom and blush for mediocrity. It is a shouting fact that it is difficult to find teachers to manage gifted children. One of our outstanding discoveries is that it pays to place high-powered teachers in charge of even the lower levels of mentality.

If it is the great adventure to discover gifted persons to manage the world's work, it is no less adventure to discover and place gifted persons in elementary education. Surely the time is ripe, if you are calling for training that leads to the fine art of living, to man elementary education with gifted personnel who have paid the price that learning and the power to do exact.

Let us look at this matter from an entirely different angle. It is no compliment to child or man to permit him to go through life as a bare existence, slipshod and desultory. A mind was given us from the seat of Might to improve and use, whether it be teacher or taught. It is unfair and less than duty to permit teachers with impoverished powers to attempt to lead youth and suffer chagrin and loss of selfrespect, as well as loss of respect for the state that licenses them to serve a divine cause unprepared and unordained.

I agree that our present organization for elementary education cannot meet the demand of these times.

I beg that you indulge me in my fancy that the slogan, "Train for leadership," is not quite sound. Let us try this alteration: "Find leadership and train it." This distinction is fundamental if it is correct in assumption. Scholarship is the reflection of training but, if scholarship is imposed or superimposed upon an introvert or one who lives within one's self, there is slight expectation for leadership on the part of this individual. This is only a more polite phrasing of the street jargon, "He knows a lot but can't teach."

Teaching is regarded rather as a trade than a profession. We must face that fact. It will so continue until we have changed our organization.

There is another corollary to this proposition—much colder, much more unpleasant; but let the probe be sent home in the hope of relief. It is corroborating proof of our diseased body. The elementary teacher yearns for a place in the high school; the secondary teacher eyes with envy a place in administration, and the administrator would be honored by a call to the university. When the drudgery of elementary education has been exalted to distinction through the quality of service rendered, elementary teachers will remain in their field.

The rebuttal to this is quick and conclusive: This is not possible under our present salary schedules. The answer is equal pay for equal service. Not equal pay for equal training. This connotes pay for quality of service in secondary education.

The cry is abroad, equal pay for equal training. Training does not imply service by any means. Let us revert to our former statement, that scholarship does not imply teaching power. A flat salary schedule is a curse to the public and a worse curse to the teacher. It means the strong teacher does his work with the weak teacher, a millstone about his neck. A flat salary schedule is an economic waste beyond computation. Unless it is altered, business will take over education to save taxes and will save them. At the same time, education will be improved.

Let us see how this can be done. You won't accept this argument now but you will later, when you think it over. You won't accept this argument because you have come to believe in the tradition that a teacher with two years of training in certain forms and ceremonies regarded as educational practise amounts to an adequate teaching equipment.

What are these socalled new roads to truth and action? Just this: Certain mechanical forms devised to enable uneducated persons to set in action an educational philosophy of which they are innocent. We have pinned our faith to form. We have assumed to educate hundreds of thousands of teachers to act under their own direction. This has not been done in any other line of work in this country, from the making of plows to operation for goiter. None of the world's great men such as Plato, Haldane, and Benjamin Franklin were trained on Stuart's dyspepsia tablets.

An equalized flat salary schedule is insurance for mediocrity. It makes an almshouse out of many American schools. It degenerates the worker and impoverishes the community. It thwarts the education of youth. But, as you say, this is democracy and that reflects our public vote. Nothing of the kind. Such a doctrine is heresy.

Changes in the operation or process in education are slow; in fact, little is done in less than ten years. Such changes come with a new philosophy and not by means of edicts. During the past twenty years we have directed our attention to administration, both intensively and extensively. We have accomplished a great deal in measuring and checking and mechanizing education in various ways. Administration has done considerable work in appraisal. Very little has been done toward improving the quality of instruction or the quality of subjectmatter. Administration becomes involved in routine, books, papers, in material things and the social adjustment of the personnel. For one administrator who lifts the level of his personnel another twenty-five will only check them.

We have employed general supervisors to maintain and improve elementary education. These in turn very quickly become administrators. Even supervisors in such special subjects as music and art increasingly become administrative officers. The quality of education will be improved by either lifting the level of all the teachers a small degree or lifting the level of the supervisors and directors to a very high degree. In my judgment, the latter program is the only practical one, either financially or professionally.

There is not enough money to select the highest quality of personnel nor pay it if found, nor is there enough skilled supervision to direct such services when employed. It is my judgment that the direction and supervision of education must be placed in the hands of a personnel with scholarship equal to that of college professors. It is frequently urged that supervision meets with the teachers' antagonism. This has not been my experience. Quite the contrary. Teachers warmly welcome the supervisors with sufficient scholarship to command respect. They do not appreciate either a social or a political supervisor.

A courageous classification of the teaching staff with a superimposed professional direction representing power, skill, and scholarship will raise the level of education materially, speedily, and with little, if any, increased cost, save some very close thinking and very great care in the selection of such personnel. A competent person can readily improve the quality of instruction of any teacher from five to twenty-five percent in the matter of three months, with only rare exceptions to the contrary.

I urge you to try this experiment. The results of a new organization will be to do the standard type of instruction with greater dispatch and increased profit. One reason why the prediction is made that this change will come about is the fact that the community is constantly urging more and more of the social program upon the schools and, on the other hand, the demands of higher education and the business world are calling for at least the present standards of results in the curriculum. There will not be enough time to satisfy both conditions unless with improved methods. It is to be remembered that the demands upon the school budget are being constantly eaten into by building costs and the welfare costs in the city.

The summary of this paper indicates that we shall shorten our courses rather than attempt the socalled enrichment of them. We shall accomplish more satisfactory results by teaching essentials supplemented by the newer aids in education plus a better educated teaching force. If we are wise, we shall reduce building costs, for buildings are the shell of education. The quality of instruction is the kernel. The ideal art of living will only come with real scholarship, whatever level of education is taken, and this in turn will only come with high-powered supervision and direction. It will then come quietly and unheralded.

In conclusion, may I tell you a brief anecdote? Recently, two newspaper publishers sat together. The one asked the other to recommend a business manager for one of his papers. They both wrote down five names, independently, of the most promising persons for the position. Four of these names were the same. They wrote an additional list of names to the extent of one dozen. The gentleman who made the inquiry visited the first five men in their order and found the first one was receiving $75,000 per year with a life contract. He found every other one of the men with a life contract and a large salary until he came to Number 10. He was employed and later proved ineffective. This story supports the old belief that there is always room at the top. If education is going to accomplish its end as desired by the public, the persons employed will have to be sent through a "step-up" transformer. We are constantly urging more money for education. In my judgment, what we require is more thinking for education; and if more money is needed after the thinking is done, I am sure the public will cheerfully grant it and not before.

GEORGE WASHINGTON BICENTENNIAL CELEBRATION

LT. COL. U. S. GRANT, III, DIRECTOR, PUBLIC BUILDINGS AND PUBLIC PARKS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

It is a privilege for me to be allowed to speak to you on this subject. It is a rather terrifying privilege for a mere Army officer who appreciates that he has not been sufficiently educated in the art of public speaking. But, on the other hand, it is a pleasure because it is the first chance that I have ever had to talk back to even one teacher. I perhaps owe you an apology for using that oldtime word which was in use when I went to school. I should have remembered that in these days when real estate men are realtors and undertakers are morticians that teachers have become educators. So I apologize for the use of an obsolete term.

I ask you to look ahead two years and at the same time to look back two centuries, for February 22, 1932, will be the Two-hundredth Anniversary of the birth of George Washington, who is associated in all our minds as the only one who by Act of Congress was declared to have been "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." He stands forth, not only in his official life but in his personal character as a citizen, the outstanding international as well as national figure of his time, and an example for posterity.

His example has been an inspiration to patriots and to the friends of liberty and equality of political opportunity throughout the world. The forthcoming bicentennial of his birth gives us in America an opportunity to show whether we also have cherished the tradition of his achievements and have retained the respect for his high type of citizenship without which we cannot expect our democracy to continue as he intended it should.

This opportunity is one which must not be lost or passed by. If there are doubts as to our form of government and if there be any reason to the claim that our institutions today are out of sympathy with the tradition and principles of the government he established, let us by a search of his writings and the expression of his thought determine whether this be so or not. Of course, with the very much more complicated interrelation between individuals in society today and the enormous growth of population, much more complicated governmental administration and legal restrictions are necessary to solve our present problems than sufficed a century and a third ago, but we can well consider whether political leadership today is inspired by the same wisdom, toleration, and patriotism as made possible the compromise between bitterly conflicting interests in the formation of the Constitution of the United States.

No better way of dispelling discontent, of meeting the various ingenious but unsound political panaceas that are daily offered as curealls for our troubles, or of counteracting paid propaganda for the subversion of our government, can be found than to fill our hearts and minds with the inspiration that can be derived from the political principles and practises of

George Washington and the few other strong men who collaborated with him in his great work. It is, therefore, with the firm conviction that this coming bicentennial year offers a special and rarely recurring occasion for the education of our nation in the sound political and civic principles which will lift it to a higher moral plane and set it on its road safely for another two centuries, that I come to you on behalf of the United States Commission for the Celebration of the Two-hundredth Anniversary of the Birth of George Washington to ask your cooperation in making this celebration mean the most possible to the American people and particularly to give it the full educational value it can have for our young citizens.

Congress has contributed generously to the commemoration of certain localities and events in Washington's life, for instance, by adopting the restoration of his birthplace at Wakefield as a national monument, by constructing a great memorial highway from his home at Mount Vernon to the national capital city which he founded and which bears his name, and by entering upon a project for a great memorial park along the banks of the Potomac where he spent so much of his unofficial life. However, the keynote of the educational and spiritual character of the celebration has been sounded by Congress adopting as one of its chief features the publication of the complete works and writings of George Washington. This will make it possible to have in every library throughout the country and in every university the complete record of his wisdom and opinions for the help of all Americans in the future who will want to profit by what he learned in the school of hard experience.

With the desire to be helpful to the various state commissions and to the committees that will undoubtedly be established in all the cities and towns of our country to do honor to George Washington in 1932, the National Commission is assembling information which it will be ready to issue soon. It is even going to the extent of arranging for the making of a moving picture of George Washington's life, which may be used to tell his story and teach his examples throughout the country wherever wanted. It is preparing a pamphlet containing interesting sidelights and significant facts about him, which, supplemental to the short histories readily available everywhere, will supply material for speeches and courses on his life. An atlas is being prepared, not only to reproduce many of the maps which he himself made when a young surveyor practising his profession, but also to include maps showing places he visited and the scenes of his almost inconceivably varied activities. The associate directors are engaged in an effort to produce the text and full instructions for a pageant which can be used wholly or in part, in any city or town or school in which such a visualization of Washington's deeds and time will help to impress his personality upon the American public and help our citizens today to do honor to the Father of our Country. The commission is also hoping to secure necessary legislative authority from congress at its next session to issue a medal particularly in honor of this bicentennial, a replica of which may be made available to the various schools and colleges and other patriotic institutions for prizes for competitions of various kinds on the subject, "Washington, his times, and the character of country which he founded."

It has been definitely decided that the character of this celebration should be educational and spiritual, that it should be participated in by all the people of the country in their own home surroundings and by their own efforts. It is not considered an appropriate occasion for an exposition showing the progress in inventions, industries, and commerce, nor for any other concentrated effort in any one place which has commercial significance. It is rather the occasion for an appreciation of what he did, of what he tried to do, of the greatness of heart and of mind which enabled him to do so much, and for deriving from these the inspiration and courage which we need to carry on our daily tasks with equal steadiness of purpose.

The commission has indicated that it hopes the celebrations throughout the country will be on February 22, 1932, and will continue on appropriate dates and occasions until Thanksgiving Day of that same year. We hope that the educational and spiritual character of the celebration as opposed to mere superficial expressions of patriotism will be emphasized at the very start by your deciding to hold your convention in 1932 at the Capital City of the Nation, which was founded by George Washington. I am sorry that I have no candidate to say this with, or other backers beside myself. But we sincerely hope you will consider holding your convention there in that year. We hope that you will try to put into your schools and colleges special courses on George Washington and his time and that you will cooperate with us in making this year, 1932, a real year of renaissance for these United States.

For the children and young people there must be particular interest and hope in the ability of a man to rise by sheer strength of character, civic virtue, consideration for the needs and views of others, and good commonsense to the leadership of his country and an exalted international recognition; and it would appear to me that there can be no better way of persuading the citizens of tomorrow of the general soundness of our institutions and of the possibilities before them for a useful life full of satisfactory achievement, than to bring them to visualize the full life and great personality of George Washington, in all its phases, so that they may profit by a sense of companionship with him and instinctively emulate his character and methods.

Evidently, this purpose cannot be achieved except through the collaboration and active support of the schools and universities throughout the country. And it is there we must humanize George Washington, we must think of him as the very human person illustrated by the few portraits made in early manhood and before the misfortune of false teeth had stretched his upper lip into rigidity and unfortunately gave his mouth that unsympathetic look of inflexibility which we have come to know from the pictures in general circularization. A man of strong emotions, held under control by stronger mental powers, interested in all sorts of outdoor activities and in sympathy with the obligations of his neighbors and community, he had a keen sense of humor, generous affections, while always studying to be just to all and openminded to every suggestion. Such he was and such he remained at heart even after the reticence and dignity requisite of one in high office forced him to restrain his natural impetuosity and enthusiasms. It is hard to feel on familiar terms with demagogs or think of Washington in the Stuart paintings as a human being, beset with the same instincts and difficulties which constitute our life of today. Only by the difficulties which he had overcome, by the venomous and personal attacks made upon him, by the chaotic political and economic conditions among which he did found and formulate a basis for sound government, by private interests which demanded, and, of course, received his careful thought and attention, can we realize how great a man he really was and draw hope and inspiration for ourselves.

If I may digress a moment to tell an anecdote from my own family that seems to have application here because we think so much of Washington as a great, calm, and always successful figure, who had no difficulty in overcoming obstacles and "who was first in the hearts of his countrymen," but that you remember was not passed by congress until after he died. On the evening of a fourth of March, I think the last one of his second administration, my grandfather was in the president's rooms at the Capitol, as is the usual custom to sign the last bills passed by congress at the session, and while they were waiting for the next engrossed bill to come out, Mr. Chandler, the attorney-general, said something about its being a relief perhaps to have it all over and be rid of the abuse which had been heaped upon him and that it must have been very hard to keep from being embittered by such abuse. And he said it was difficult to keep from feeling personally bitter toward people who abused you and that he had come to try to avoid the particularly abusive articles. And Mr. Chandler then took a newspaper out of his pocket and began reading. He said, "Listen to this, General." And he began reading very seriously an abusive and vituperative article on the President's private character. It was much harsher than usual and when he got through—it happened that it spoke of the President always—my grandfather said, "I did not realize that they said things about me as bad as that." Mr. Chandler said, "Well, General, that was written about George Washington." It was an old paper which he had dug out for the occasion.

By humanizing him I do not mean to drag in the disproved scandals as certain of our recent fiction writers have done when they undertook to write history. Careful research shows how untrue these accusations are.

The truth does honor to the great and the brighter the light that shines on George Washington's records the greater he appears. Teach your pupils to know and admire George Washington, to carry his example and companionship in their hearts, and the country's destinies will be safe in the hands of the next generation.

EDUCATION FOR POLITICAL SERVICE

HON. RUTH BRYAN OWEN, MEMBER OF CONGRESS FROM THE FOURTH CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICT OF FLORIDA

Essentially the same address was delivered at the Department of Superintendence Convention in Atlantic City, February, 1930. The address is printed in the section of this volume devoted to the Department of Superintendence. See table of contents or index for page on which it appears.

THE PORTO RICAN PEOPLE

JOSE PADIN, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, SAN JUAN, P. R.

I bring you very cordial greetings from one of the outlying possessions that America seems to have forgotten—from Porto Rico, the Cinderella of the American family.

An eminent American jurist has described Porto Rico as "a piece of land surrounded by water which belongs to the United States but does not form a part thereof." This legal definition, this outline map does not give a complete description of the island. Porto Rico is more than a piece of real estate with aquatic boundaries. It is the home of a million and a half of loyal American citizens. Limited in area, separated from the Mainland by 1300 miles of sea, different in racial and cultural origins, Porto Rico remains at the end of more than thirty years of association with the United States a territory with a small "t," organized but unincorporated. The Constitution has not followed the flag.

The people of Porto Rico would like to have this anomalous situation changed. The national interests are just as dear to the American citizen born in Porto Rico as they are to the American citizen born in Ohio, New York, or California. War is the acid test of loyalty. During the World War Porto Rico gave ample proof of its allegiance to the United States. Excluded from the provisions of the universal service law, it insisted on its right to share the common burdens and dangers in the hour of national stress. It refused to remain noncontiguous and unincorporated when the fate of the republic was to be decided on the battlefield. The Porto Rico Regiment, recruited to its full war strength, went to Panama to help guard that important waterway. The Island oversubscribed its quotas of liberty bonds, and when the Armistice was signed, it had the nucleus of a splendid division ready for overseas service. It is only fair to add to the description of the eminent jurist this detail, that in the hour of national emergency Porto Rico is a participating territory.

The Panama Canal is perhaps the juglar vein in our system of national defences. Porto Rico is one of the principal outposts for the protection of this vital artery. You can rest assured that if put to the test, the strength of that position would depend largely on the loyalty of its million and a half of American citizens and only incidentally on its fortifications. Modern warfare has become vastly complicated, but the human element remains the decisive factor.

Commercially Porto Rico is far from insignificant. Its annual trade with continental United States has passed the $200,000,000 mark. As a market the Island ranks ahead of all but six or seven of the largest Latin-American countries. Viewed from a strictly selfish point of view, the prosperity of Porto Rico should be a matter of concern to the people of continental United States whose own prosperity is depending more and more on overseas markets and on populations with a purchasing power great enough to pay for high-priced American goods.

Although Porto Rico is important to the nation for military and commercial reasons, its chief value is its instrumentality. Let me explain what I mean by that.

It is evident that our most important future foreign relations will be with the nations beyond the Rio Grande, the socalled Latin-American republics. We are becoming gradually aware of this fact and of the necessity of grounding those relations on mutual understanding and appreciation. During the last hundred years we have had considerable friction with some of our American neighbors, possibly because our contacts have been almost exclusively commercial and industrial. The trader and the concession-hunter are not the best agents of peace and understanding. Fortunately, sincere efforts are being made today on both sides of the Rio Grande to establish cultural contacts between the two Americas. We are exchanging students and scientists. We are sending south "merchants of light." We have become aware that Latin-Americans are interested in spiritual things. They are responding well to our advances. A great deal of work remains to be done in the western hemisphere to increase human happiness, and all the Americans, the South Americans as well as the North Americans, should undertake it cooperatively. The best way for men to get acquainted and to learn to respect one another is to engage together in tasks that lift them above their narrow selfish interests. In education and social welfare much can be done cooperatively in America. To this task, North America can contribute its genius for organization, its technical skill, and its boundless human energy. South America can supply the field of action and loyal, intelligent collaboration.

To the promotion of amicable inter-American relations, Porto Rico can render inestimable service. Latin-Americans by blood and tradition and North Americans by political allegiance, the Porto Ricans are singuarly well endowed to act as the interpreter of the two Americas. Aware of its unique opportunity, the Island is making an effort to prepare its youth for this important work by developing its state university into a seat of learning where the two great cultures of the New World may meet upon a common ground. The Panama Canal cut the continent asunder to speed up physical communication between North and South America. A great seat of Pan-American learning would bridge the gap which separates the two cultures of the western hemisphere and facilitate interchange in the realm of spiritual values. The Culebra Cut would then be the symbol of physical separation, the Pan-American University the instrumentality of spiritual reunion. To the realization of this dream, little Porto Rico is making a real contribution.

In collaboration with Columbia University, we have organized a graduate school of tropical medicine whose research in tropical diseases and nutrition problems is already attracting widespread interest. In cooperation with Boston University, we are maintaining a College of Business Administration, an excellent training ground for those who wish to engage in inter-American trade or enter the consular service. With Cornell University we are negotiating the establishment of a graduate school of tropical agriculture. We propose to develop further this cooperative plan until the University of Porto Rico becomes *de facto* an inter-American seat of learning, drawing teachers and students from North, Central, and South America and spreading its beneficent influence over the New World.

This is no empty dream. Graduates of our College of Agriculture are right now doing excellent work in Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Venezuela, and other South American republics. A graduate school of tropical agriculture will provide additional technical training, so much needed for the development of the vast agricultural possibilities of Latin America. The graduates of our Colleges of Law and Business Administration are unusually well equipped to represent North-American firms in the South-American markets, for they know the language, customs, traditions, and psychology of the Latin-American people, and they are familiar with the language and business methods of the North-American people. In the College of Education we are planning to offer facilities for research and a comparative study of the doctrines and procedure of American education.

I believe you will agree with me that Porto Rico is much more than a piece of land surrounded by water. I have given you a few glimpses of its possibilities as the cultural isthmus of America. Whether Porto Rico remains a dependency, *belonging* only in a property sense, or becomes a substantial national asset, depends largely on a realization by the people of the mainland of the potential value of the island. You will have to realize first of all that Porto Rico exists, that it is not one of the Sandwich or Philippine Islands, and that its natives are citizens of the United States. Then you will have to decide whether it will pay you to develop the potential values of Porto Rico. You are keenly aware of the value of commercial goodwill. You are always ready to pay cash for it. There is another type of goodwill, exultantly proclaimed in these words: "Glory to God in the highest, and on earth goodwill towards men." It is this brand of goodwill that you shall have to promote, if you really desire friendly relations with our Latin-American neighbors. You can increase that goodwill by an intelligent use of the potential value of Porto Rico as the instrument of inter-American cultural exchange and the promoter of accord and understanding.

Right now Porto Rico faces serious social and economic problems. With a density of 420 inhabitants to the square mile and agriculture as the chief means of support, the Island is beset by more than its fair share of unemployment, poverty, and disease. The development of our natural resources has lagged behind the growth of our population. While we are readjusting the situation, we shall need help. Treat Porto Rico generously. It will be a good investment. After all, Porto Rico is a sort of show-window opened towards South America. Help to keep it attractively dressed.

A cynical critic of American life is responsible for the observation that here in the United States the study of geography begins earlier, lasts longer, and is accompanied by a more formidable mobilization of apparatus and devices than anywhere else in the civilized globe, and that, notwithstanding, the American is, among the citizens of the civilized world, easily the most deficient in geographical knowledge. However it may be, Porto Rico has suffered a great deal of neglect because the ordinary continental American is never quite sure whether Porto Rico is a part of Cuba, Hawaii, or merely the name of a five-cent cigar. You know a great deal better than that. You can render our little island a great service. Put it on the map and teach your children that it is more than a blot of red or green; that it is the home of 600,000 children, of one million and a half American citizens who are anxious to occupy a position of responsibility and dignity in the great American family.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE PUBLIC TO THE SCHOOLS

MRS. HUGH D. BRADFORD, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS, SACRAMENTO, CALIF.

Realizing the rate with which schools are progressing, we wonder how far they could go if they were effectively supported by the realization on the part of the public of its responsibility and its opportunity.

In considering schools, there has been a tendency to consider the public as that section of a community which is composed of the non-professional school people, but this division into lay and professional groups is artificial and unsafe, and the public in this discussion will be considered as the entire adult group to whom the schools belong. We will separate the public into groups only for a moment in our consideration.

The public, as a whole, needs awakening to a definite sense of its responsibility. The average citizen is startled as he tries to answer, "What do you think is the responsibility of the public to the schools?" To *some* it presents a new thought. *Few* have had definite ideas on the subject.

There are several reasons for this: the public has never clearly seen its responsibilities because it has never stopped in its mad rush to analyze its relationship to the school; if it gives the school a passing thought, it is that having turned the schools over to the professional group, it is acquitted of all responsibility. The teachers, themselves, are many times indefinite as to what, if anything, is expected of the public. Parents have felt their obligation was discharged if the children were clean and neatly dressed. Fortunately, however, there are many of the professional group who desire more than the faith of the public, and there are on the other hand, many interested citizens, non-teachers, who would willingly assist in a larger way if definite lines of cooperation were suggested.

In many instances the only definite thing the public as a whole knows is that it is expected to pay sufficient taxes with which to provide good school buildings, and adequate teacher salaries. This being done, Mr. Citizen points with pride to the new school as an evidence of duty well done, and while the average citizen may never attempt to vote for the personnel of the school board, nor voice himself in the selection of teachers, he is nevertheless most generally calmly complacent in his faith that all is well with education and that his part is completed.

If, however, as an *employer,* he experiences what many employers do in both business and professional fields, finding that the graduate or near-graduate is unable to adjust his education of the school to that of his new work, the employer becomes impatient with school education and demands to know what is wrong. Seldom does it occur to him that this may be a personal maladjustment, due to the youth himself; or that in some way he, as a business man, has failed to acquire the newer business method that the school has offered; or that having found what he believes to be efficiency, he, in turn, has failed to tie his business experience to the school in such a way that the school may be more efficient. He blames the school, however, for the failure. The school cannot give the same sense of responsibility that the job does, and the employer must realize this. He must not expect the impossible. In vocational fields, the industrial employer must be willing to accept and assist in training apprentice workers who are still carrying on school work. Labor is sometimes reluctant to cooperate with the school, because labor is not in touch with school programs, and teachers are sometimes failing to tie up theory with practise in these vocational fields. This is true in business, professional, and industrial life.

There is a carelessness in judging our schools that is based on lack of information and misunderstanding. The lay public too frequently looks for perfection in the thing which is the individual's own predominating interest, and his own idea of success, failing to take into account individual differences, and maladjustments, and not realizing that education is a life process in which the school plays only one part in the educational development. Until managers of large industries, employers in vocational fields actually work out a definite program with teachers, there is bound to be lack of coordination.

1. There must be a newer and greater understanding of school education. The teacher as a professional part of the public, must make clear this

ideal, the methods by which it may be approached, and the responsibility of the public in carrying forward school programs.

2. The public must realize that it creates the environment for the school.

(a) The health of the community in which the school is located, vitally affects school attendance, and the child's opportunities to receive school education. The teacher may find his responsibility in many instances by seeing that authorities provide sanitary health conditions.

(b) The public as a *community group* is responsible for the amusement centers, their regulation, and their influence upon the social life of school children. However, exalted a school faculty may be in its ideals of social behavior, the community standard is a direct influence in either hampering or assisting the school. Communities must have standards as to what is provided in amusements, what type of magazines are displayed, what hours social activities should cease.

(c) The public must recognize the school as a great socializing agency, preparing youth for life. It must realize that in cooperation with the school it is responsible for the adequacy of this social preparation. Crime and juvenile delinquency are vitally effected by the attitude of the public in its social relationships. A community that tolerates roadhouses and slums must cease to criticize the school child found there. There is no characteristic of heredity that cannot be dealt with in terms of environment. The "goodwill" activities of the school should be supported, not decried. These activities are humanizing. The "sports" program must be considered a social activity more than play or physical development. Upon the public rests the responsibility for developing a normal social environment for the school that will enable it to fulfill its objectives in character education. The public must as a unit, help youth to choose its pleasures wisely.

3. The public must be made to understand what is meant by "equal opportunities for children" in *practise,* as well as in theory. It must assume its responsibility in making such adjustments of taxes and school administration as will accomplish the desired results. Teachers must present the facts which show the lack of facilities for rural school opportunities.

4. Our public must encourage adequate legislation such as will provide for wellpaid teachers in active service and funds for retired teachers. Teachers who are financially harrassed, are dangerously hampered. We should seek to make clear that the progress of the school depends upon its teachers.

5. The public in the home must assume responsibility for home education as a supplement to school education. If successfully carried out, the parent-public gives to the school healthy, disciplined, happy children, ready for the program of the school. Later, home education should promote and stimulate loyalty, obedience, and respect for school discipline. It should also correlate the activities of the school with the home, but it needs to be told *how.*

The teachers must bridge the gap between the school and home, and between the school and the community, with a clear understanding of what type of cooperation the school needs. They must cultivate a willingness to recognize the public as another channel for the education of the child. The teacher-public should utilize every agency that may assist in enriching the school education program. *The only school education that is effective is that which is tied into the life of the community.*

The teacher must take the public into his confidence. If legislation that affects teachers is needed, it may be more readily obtained if the lay public is not regarded as a separate bloc, but as a partner of the teacher. Many laws for tenure and retirement fail, because teachers have not understood the public mind. Great city groups have passed tenure laws for themselves, forgetting that in rural, one-room schools a teacher with life tenure is the only influence in school that the rural community may have. Happily our rural teachers are in most cases good influences, but rural parents protest the narrowing influence of some teachers who may be professionally correct but not the type that community desires.

Parents and teachers united are a force for school advancement that cannot be overestimated. The growth of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in numbers and achievement is due to the fact that the public is awakening to many of its responsibilities to the schools.

Education will progress to the degree that the lay and professional public *understand* the needs of the schools, *cooperate* with each other, and realize that all education is a cooperative process.

We have theorized much. Let us be more definite; as parents and teachers make clear to ourselves, what we think the school needs, ask for it, and the public will respond.

The school of the future must provide health, effective living, happy, abundant lives with souls that shall "split the sky in two, and let the face of God shine through."

SYMBOLS OR EXPERIENCE

W. E. SEALOCK, DEAN, TEACHERS COLLEGE, UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA, LINCOLN, NEB.

Numbers, handwriting, printed words, algebraic equations, formulas, all are symbols which the race has worked out through long years of experience. The figure five is a symbol representing five objects of any kind. If we wish to multiply five apples by three we simply place three groups of five apples each before us and get as a result fifteen apples. But if we multiply five by three we have as a result fifteen, a symbolic operation and result, but a far more useful one than the former. The five in the last operation may be anything from pennies to potatoes, from men to monkeys. The operation is symbolic, not actual, but its application is of vast and varied extent. Symbols, whether representing mathematical operations, suggesting loyalties, as for example a party emblem, or spoken or written words, represent a stage in advance of the actual and make possible progress in thinking from commonsense to science. Consequently, symbols are a *sine qua non* for intellectual advancement. As long as mathematics was used merely for making specific measurements, little progress was made in the subject. Until adequate, easily used symbols were invented, mathematics could not, and did not pass beyond a very elementary stage. Until symbols representing definite measurements as the ohm, volt, and ampere were devised, little development took place either in theoretical discussions or in the practical applications of electricity. In every illustration given, symbols came as the result of a vast amount of firsthand experience. They are needed, they are valuable; we would be helpless in presentday civilization without them. Symbols are simply tools which can be used to advantage only after adequate experience with the things represented by them.

Formerly we taught children to read by methods which ignored meanings with the result that little reading was done when those children became adults. Since 1880 the amount of reading done has increased at a very rapid rate, if the increase in the number of issues of newspapers and periodicals is in any sense a criterion. As a nation, we are today doing probably from six to ten times as much reading per individual as was done in 1880. Just a little prior to 1880 we began to teach children to read by methods which stressed meaning. In brief, the amount of reading done by adults has increased as methods of teaching reading have recognized experience as necessary on the part of the child with the materials upon which the reading is based. Today in our progressive first grades, we give children an experience, or a series of experiences, and then make this the basis for the reading. To these children the words and the sentences, the symbols, have real meaning, for they have had experience with the things represented by the symbols.

In a certain first-grade room there were many objects that children had brought in for nature study work. Among the living things were two turtles. For several days the children were interested in observing the color and outstanding characteristics, and in learning how to care for the turtles.

One day during the recreation period the children decided to let the turtles enjoy some recreation, too. So the turtles were placed on the floor in the midst of the children. Soon the turtles began to crawl about on the floor. The children became interested in which turtle would travel the faster. One child suggested a race between the turtles. Both turtles were placed on a starting line. At the stroke of the gong the turtles were off. The children watched anxiously the slow movements of the turtles, speculating on the one that would win. At the close of the recreation period, the children measured the distance traveled by each turtle, and could tell without hesitation which won. When the teacher asked for the winner's score in the exact number of inches, they were puzzled and could not give the correct answer. A problem in subtraction had arisen. The teacher realized that it was the psychological time to teach a subtraction fact even though her daily schedule did not call for number work at this particular time. Ten inches minus seven inches was the problem.

Had one visited this classroom a few days later he would have found the following account of the race on a card:

Nip and Tuck live in our room.
One day we put them on the floor.
We wanted to see a race.
We started them on a line.
Nip went 7 inches in 10 minutes
Tuck went 10 inches in 10 minutes.
Now Nip and Tuck race every day.
Nip and Tuck are two turtles.

For several days the children enjoyed turtle racing during their recreation period. The starting point was marked. The turtles were allowed eight minutes for the racing. This called for a timekeeper. Score cards were made. Scores were kept for each turtle. The winner's score was always announced in inches. While the interest in turtle racing was at its height, the teacher suggested "a race in subtraction." Under the guidance of this skilful teacher the "subtraction race" with boys and girls as contestants became as popular as the "turtle race" had been. This teacher had utilized pupil experience and the natural spontaneous activities of the children as a basis for teaching reading and arithmetic. He made it possible for the children to have interesting and worthwhile experiences before they were introduced to the symbols representing these experiences. Teaching subtraction and reading were not wooden, mechanical processes; the symbols came last.

Geography, much if not all of it, has often been to many children little but meaningless symbols. The story of the child who did not recognize the river upon which his home was situated as the Mississippi River of his geography has become classic. The assumption has been that the symbols, the words of the textbook, in some magic way were translated into real experience for the child the moment he read them. Teachers and parents often forget how the symbols with which they are familiar came to have meaning for them and have neglected the first step in the learning process, firsthand experience. Every child cannot be transported to Asia and South America. How is he to gain a knowledge of the geography of these continents? Or is he simply to remain ignorant of most of the geography of the world? Necessarily, we cannot secure firsthand experience of everything; we must learn many things through vicarious experience. The hill, the valley, the prairie, the lake, the village, or city, with which he is familiar may be used to give the child firsthand experience which will make the otherwise meaningless accounts of his textbook meaningful. Pictures, films, and carefully collected materials will play a part. Lew Wallace who in Ben Hur wrote those inimitable descriptions of places in the Holy Land before he had ever visited it, tells us that after he had traveled there and visited the places he had described, he had no desire to change a single description so accurate had been his mental pictures gained from vicarious experiences.

The writer remembers quite clearly a high-school girl in his own school system who had completed plane geometry and was attempting solid geometry, but she was having considerable difficulty with the subject. An interview by the superintendent with this high-school girl disclosed the fact that while she had passed the work in plane geometry with a grade approximately the average of the class, she had no conception of an angle. In fact, to her, an angle and a triangle were the same thing. To this student the symbols in geometry had little, if any, meaning. To thousands of students geometry, so far as its value is concerned, is a study in logic and not a study in spatial relationships. If the work in geometry were based on the firsthand experiences of students, this would not be the case. As it is, we have a subject with great educational possibilities often becoming a study of symbols with little meaning for the pupil.

Numerous risible situations have occurred in history classes due to the fact that to the student his ancient or medieval history was a mass of more or less meaningless statements, and the teacher made no effort either in the selection of the subjectmatter or through the method of presentation to give him a basis for the material he was expected to master. Consequently, he made with the Diet of Worms and the Papal Bull the only associations that his background of experience rendered possible. As long as the subjectmatter of elementary and high-school history is selected on the basis of the importance of events at the time they transpire and without any attention to whether or not they explain presentday events and movements, just so long will history for many students have little meaning. The writer in his classes in the history of education and in the philosophy of education has often asked students to make an invoice of the extent to which their study of Greek, Roman, medieval, and even modern history helps them to understand presentday political, economic, and social situations. Reports from these students indicate that little was gained by them. Wars, the downfall and rise of dynasties have been the pictures on the screen, some of which have been interesting; but little has been brought away that is valuable in enabling the student to appreciate and understand the world in which he lives. Historical situations cannot be appreciated by students unless they have in some way an adequate basis for understanding them. In the main, there is no serious difficulty in helping students to secure this basis, but teachers assume it with the result that the educational value of the subject is largely lost.

No reference has been made to the study of foreign languages although it will be admitted, I believe, that much of this work deals far too largely with symbols. Some students get a great deal from the study of foreign languages but to many it is a boresome grind with little to show in the way of worthwhile results. A study by Dr. O. H. Werner shows that for the student of average or below average ability, the study of a foreign language often actually hinders his learning English, and acts as an obstacle. However, we should not be too critical of foreign language study, for science in the high school, in spite of the fact that it is so rich in opportunities for contact with life, often deals with symbols with as little meaning as those in foreign language.

There are today in education tendencies to emphasize symbols at the expense of the real experience necessary to understand and appreciate the symbol. Some standard achievement tests belong in this category. Many completion tests demand practically a memorization of symbols. The student *may* get meaning and relationships, but so far as the passing of the test is concerned, this is not necessary. True-false tests likewise may fall to this same educational level. Students proceed to get the symbols regardless of meanings and relationships. A group of graduate students were discussing a test they had taken the day before. In answer to the question "How did you get along with the examination?" one student replied, "The last quarter of the test was based upon a chapter in"—naming a certain book—"which I had read but had not committed." Comment certainly is unnecessary.

Any examination may call for symbols and symbols only whether it be of the objective type or of the essay type. The examination, however, which demands not only facts, but also a reorganization of these facts goes a long way toward determining whether the symbols have meaning for the students or whether they have remained symbols only. No attack is here intended on objective tests. They are useful but on the other hand they may be so used as to defeat their real purpose.

Since we in our examinations are often prone to ask questions which can be answered by students who have mastered symbols only, it follows quite naturally that our objectives in any subject apparently may be realized by students without their gaining the appreciations, understandings, and relationships which we expect them to master. Educational objectives have been stated in various ways, and while they have helped us in our thinking, they have not suggested either the curriculum materials or the procedures which will give to the students those experiences necessary for the attainment of the goals set forth. If education is to be the outcome of valuable experiences through which the child passes, what is to be the goal? Can we suggest an objective that will be either adequate or helpful? Knowledge comes as a result of experience and looks toward the future, not toward the past. Mastery of facts gained without adequate basic experience brings little appreciation and meaning, and an almost total lack of knowledge of relationships. When subjectmatter ceases to be merely something to be learned and becomes ways of behaving, materials for carrying on activities already under way, then opportunities for firsthand experiences on the part of the pupils will be greater, and correspondingly greater will be the interest and the values which accrue. When children are solving problems of their own and difficulties arise, they ask many and varied questions. The same children dealing with subjectmatter in the form of symbols ask very few questions, for there is little that makes an appeal. Can this attitude on the part of the pupils be set up as a measure of the achievements they have made?

In any line of work in life in which progress is being made, two things are necessary. As the work moves along more and more problems arise, but at the same time those in charge are able to solve more and more of these problems. To merely raise the problem for somebody else to solve is not enough. The successful man must be increasingly able to solve more and more of these problems, to secure satisfactory and reasonably adequate answers to the increasing number of questions which come to him. In somewhat like manner may we not set up a goal which will to a degree at least determine worthwhile school achievements?

Our problems, social, economic, and governmental, are becoming more numerous and more difficult of solution. The forces let loose by our age of scientific developments must be controled. An education that makes for careful, independent thinking is needed. Such education has its roots in personal experiences, and in the solution of problems in which the pupils have a gripping interest. Here the writer is indebted to that eminent thinker and teacher, Dr. Kilpatrick of Columbia University. If our pupils increase in their ability to ask questions, if they are increasingly able to ask more and better questions, and at the same time are increasingly able to answer satisfactorily more and more of their own questions, may we not consider this a criterion by which to measure our success as teachers? Would not the problem of making symbols meaningful largely disappear? This is probably another way of saying that we shall aim at the growth and development of the child, that what he does in school must bring to him more meaning, greater appreciation, and increased understanding of relationships; all of which will tend to make his life richer and the services he can render greater. Experiences are the bases for knowledge, and knowledge used in furthering legitimate social and individual ends means growth. Growth is our objective.

THE TEACHER AND THE CHILD

H. E. BARNARD, DIRECTOR, WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON CHILD HEALTH AND PROTECTION, U. S. DEPARTMENT OF INTERIOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Mr. Barnard talked informally without notes. No manuscript was available for the volume of *Proceedings.*

CREATIVE ACTIVITY VITAL TO THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

FREDERICK H. BARBEE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ST. JOSEPH, MO.

There is only one way to provide for adequate opportunity for creative activities among students in public schools and that is to create within the mind of the teachers a desire for such activities. This can best be accomplished by a cooperative effort to incorporate it in the curriculum of the school. Our biggest task today is to establish such practises as guarantee a wholesome participation by both pupils and teachers. If we want more creative work in the schools, we can have it. If we take the public into our confidence, there will be created a wholesome desire for such activities as will more nearly perpetuate an adequate progressive training of our boys and girls in such practises as have larger carry-over values.

We all recognize that we are living today under a new social order, and that this new regime is making heavy demands upon our school program to meet the changing exigencies of commercial and industrial life. It is well that the schools heed this demand since we are expected to produce a citizen who is better able to function in this new society. This gives rise to the pertinent question as to what public education should mean. There is no question in our minds relative to meeting present needs, nor is there a question concerning the preparation for complete living in a changing civilization. Our specific question turns the glass inward and we continually ask ourselves how we shall meet this new demand. The best long-range objective for public schools is better prepared citizens. This we know is reflected by a thinking public, nor can we shift the responsibility of the school thereto. The best educational theories as substantiated by research and the science of education demand in practise that we set up in schools processes of more certain values. Our task is largely one of clarification. We who administer public schools have a twofold responsibility—namely, to set up within the school the best practises, and to sell these at par to the public. To do this we are forced to more clearly define objectives. We must produce better sorted and better constructed curriculums. We must see to it that we have better teaching processes going on. It is patent, however, that our practise lags far behind our welldefined objectives of today. A thing that will vitalize the entire school procedure is a reemphasis upon pupil activity. We must give opportunity for the development of real ability. We are probably under-teaching our pupils. That is, we are setting patterns of too adult a concept, and are holding the student to a practise that in itself tends to ignore spontaneous and free reactions of the individual.

There is no lack of agreement with the best teaching procedures when we set out to deliver the youth from this handicap. It is lack of interpretation of those finer qualities, our desire to arrive at our goals by somewhat carefully constructed procedures too often meeting the adult concept that blocks our program of creative spontaneity. Modern psychology has placed the pupil in the foreground in our educational work. This is the fundamental life of the school. The new school is discovering how to set up an environment which will draw out the creative capacities of youth. To know the student and what he is capable of doing is as necessary as to know subjectmatter, and often of more vital concern. Our task is to provide more worthwhile possibilities in the classroom, and what we do here circumscribes the whole processes of education. The creative is linked with the past and is an effort to adapt the school to the needs and natures of children, to make their lives more joyous and vital. Our philosophy must see the whole process, the relation of the child to the adult in order that it may contribute the greatest amount of success over the individual's whole life. Our whole philosophy is revised in terms of child interest. It is not a question of the whim or humor of childhood, but a question of the type of values we shall place in the line of experiences which become vitally interesting to the youth. This is the inherent right of childhood.

Today we are building our programs to provide for a freer spirit; we are seeking to bring the student to a higher sense of purpose; we are trying to start him on a path of discovery—an open sesame; books are his mine wherein he may discover the golden nuggets that may set him on the road to great riches. The curriculum becomes a guide, and if used wisely, tracks him through the unknown, and to him, the unexplored; it releases him to work out the latent powers that are his inheritance. This new creative spirit asks to be included in our working curriculum. It is asking for its full evaluation in the life and activity of the school. It seeks to be recognized on its own merits. It has a most prominent part in the development of educational practises and lays considerable claim to much intrinsic value. It must have more than a passing consideration, and when it can be brought under proper scientific behavior, it will receive recognition as one of the more important factors in learning now fundamental to the better ongoing of the public schools.

If, as it is claimed by those who have thought it wise to make it a part of the curriculum, it is highly conducive to the development of better personal qualities, it is worth a place in our educational scheme. One does not discharge his obligation by teaching children. He must eject into this teaching such things as will bring the student to a maturity along the lines of a finer personality, and help develop a foundation which will enable the individual to "find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends."

Character develops; confidence comes into the spirit and lives. New desires, new hungers, new satisfactions arise, and these furnish us the key for a new education. It will permeate the whole of life and function as a stimulus to higher living. Often we thwart a developing spirit by our impatience with the product; rather should we cultivate and foster that spirit or desire to create, and ever and ever assist its refining so that the individual reaches to even greater power. A natural wholesome schoolroom atmosphere which is vital and life-giving will foster independence and stimulate originality in both thought and deed. This is the power of the creative.

On every hand school practises are being molded to conform to this newer type of classroom activity. The tendency is directly toward the creative in education, but we need disciplined initiative. As Mearns says "The secret of our results lies in the environment we as teachers skilfully and knowingly set up day by day, and hour by hour." A large degree of formalism still persists, but hope is lodged in the security of a faculty to be trained in the future, that believes in the cultivation of honest thinking and doing among our pupils. The study of curriculums of leading school systems today evidences an active interest in the creative as a conscious type of activity. New curriculums are projects, units of work, creative work, creative music, story hour, and activity hour. This is both psychologically and educationally sound. The creative tends to a better integration of materials, is more conducive to pupil growth, and far more conducive to better common understandings.

The public is demanding emphasis upon productivity, and this is vital to school values. The emphasis must change to pupil power. Through the creative will certainly come greater initiative and drive, which in themselves become at once an American asset. The concept of education has been to provide opportunity for creative expression out of which develops the ability to add to the social heritage. Our past has been largely concerned with the creative efforts of those who have lived before. This is valuable and has its place in education, but we must make it possible for creative expression of the present student body. We should make it possible for each one to be aroused to a greater sense of selfexpression. The creative sets pupils thinking about what they can do. According to one writer society's demands of the present are relatively greater, and opportunities for learning in society are relatively less. This is a challenge to the school, else education will suffer. We must include in our school practises those things that have heavy potentiality. We are changing our curriculums to a more specific program of individual enrichment. Research is bringing to the teachers a splendid discovery of the individual. The task of the school administrator must be to free this individual from the bonds of formalism and to encourage his best development. In so doing, he must free the teacher.

Pupils must learn the art of living but we must see that they are inducted properly into its best practises through a wiser guidance. We accept as true the opinion that there is little learning until the child can do the thing. We are obliged, therefore, to offer opportunity for selfrealizations. Opportunity for pupil expression is of paramount significance and if wisely guided creative activity of pupils will have a most potent force. We must not let our procedures define our objectives but rather the reverse. If, then, we aim to encourage the development of individual personality, we must consciously design our patterns with this possibility. We can hardly expect a child to experience an abundant life whose whole educational experience is tied up in lessons to be conned, formal reactions to be made, and formal standards to be easily met. There is an ever-increasing desire and tendency to reduce the number of things to do in the classroom. We must refine our undertakings and to my mind, provisions for pure creative work by children is one of the first steps.

Someone will urge that great dangers lie immediately ahead; that the present teaching force is not creative minded and cannot properly guide the student. Likewise that the child sets up play idealism which will carry too far and unfit him for mature thinking. These may happen. Our need is for a better trained faculty to safeguard such mishaps. The danger lies in the lack of scientific application and training. Rightly included and administered, it should assist in the right development of the individual. It is in many schools now employing it not a fad but a fact. This is a challenge to the American college in its preparation of teachers.

Another grave danger lies immediately ahead of our American schools in the constantly crystallizing tendency to "get by," and why not so long as we perpetuate adult concepts as basic, and hold our pupils to a mimicry of form? We ask them to give us reactions of a predestined type. Rather should we encourage the finer development of personality which allows a greater expression of honest conviction wrought from a personal accomplishment. Values must be determined more largely in terms of personal achievement. Our goal is to produce a higher type of citizen. We must help to create an antagonism against narrow selfishness. Creative learning has much to offer as embryonic of the higher type of thinking citizen. We cannot hand over an education. We can merely set up the conditions favoring real activity and guide the student wisely. We have indicated that we yield to the demand of our ever-increasing complex society and attempt to produce the type of citizen who can meet these increasingly difficult situations.

We have another duty that lies in the direction of the fulfilment of the higher obligations to boys and girls. It is not sufficient that we provide interesting projects that attract and hold the best in the youth. There should be an increasingly careful expansion of their powers so that they may come to maturity with a moral and social fiber of greater fineness. This in the final analysis will make it possible for a greater society that in turn will reflect a higher plane of living. From this society more will be expected. If we believe, as I am sure we must, that the child has a right to develop his personality in order the better to find his rightful place and bring himself and society to ever nobler ends, we must make it possible that the school programs include such stimuli as set going these processes at an early age; and with the most delicate and wise guidance, further these developing powers throughout the education of the individual. In this machine age, less and less opportunity is afforded by society itself for the fuller expression of these creative instincts. It is our obligation. What then shall we say is our task? Shall it not be largely in the effort to make possible a far happier environment for our boys and girls that real learning shall go on; that we shall endeavor to assist our teachers in a wiser guidance of the very activities that make for nobler lives through a wholehearted productivity that shall itself ennoble our society? Shall we not be participants in bringing to all a fuller realization that, indeed, "School is Life"?

EDUCATIONAL OBLIGATIONS OF THE BROADCASTER

IRA E. ROBINSON, FEDERAL RADIO COMMISSION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

How gratifying to speak to the leading teachers of America! They belong to the profession which lends greatest good to American life. My own career was begun by teaching. It has been a matter of regret that I did not continue in that ministry. A better service would have been rendered by me, than has been rendered in all my public career. Let every teacher extol his opportunity for good.

How fitting today, in this rampant commercial age, are the words of the eminent Lyman Beecher, uttered years ago when commercialism was not so astounding and harmful! "We must educate! We must educate! or we must perish by our own prosperity."

The use of that quotation reminds me that William H. McGuffey, the foremost educator of the age, from whose book I learned the quotation long ago, produced his renowned textbooks in this great state of Ohio. No published collection of English literature ever excelled the old McGuffey series of readers. No money could buy my set, including the speller, fortunately obtained by me recently. The books thereof are not reprints, but are of the very same edition from which, to me as a boy in the latter seventies and early eighties, inspiration and ambition came for useful life. Were I operating a radio broadcasting station I would give the public a selection from McGuffey at least once a day.

In this day new things have come into being in every line. Thereby greater obligation is upon us. Our forefathers in America were limited in facilities for good, but they made the best use of all they had. Derelict, indeed, are we, their children, if we misuse or fritter away the new facilities given us. Out of the faith of the fathers we must know that the eternal fitness of things has bestowed them at the right time and for a right use.

One of those new things is radio. It is the greatest implement of democracy yet given to mankind. It is the voice of the people, indeed the expression of the soul of the people, unto themselves, and unto the other nations of the earth. It fits the accepted doctrine of Lincoln that this shall be a government of the people, by the people, and for the people.

What a power for good has radio, and yet what a power for ill. Let us not think lightly of this great new talent. All expression over the radio should be of inspiring and enlightening order. It should assuredly conform to the highest American ideal. The home and the school are the very foundation of our government. Their sanctity should be preserved, indeed nurtured, by the use of the radio. In this connection what marked responsibility rests upon the licensed broadcaster. He indeed should be the one who thinks in the terms of the home and the school. This the public has a right to demand. A determined opinion of the public in this particular will do much to control the service of the broadcaster. He must necessarily be responsive to them. The popularity of his station, its continuance, is at stake. He should at all times recognize that the public license granted him makes him a public servant, answerable to the public.

Congress, by salutary law, has stamped radio as the people's own. It is to be regulated and used wholly in the public interest. By congressional mandate, it is so licensed. No licensee can have a property right in the air. The licensee is merely a trustee for the public. He holds his license, indeed, with the promise that he will return to the people in exchange therefor a general public use. No one has the right to devote a radio license to his exclusive private use. Rightly, this is the doctrine of the present radio law. Let every citizen, particularly the educators, be alert to maintain that doctrine. It is in direct accord with true democracy. No one group must ever dominate radio. Its influence is too farreaching for that. It must be open to all. In this connection, no one has greater foresight than President Hoover. In 1925, before radio had developed so that its great public usefulness could generally be recognized as it is now, he, then the Secretary of Commerce, testifying before the House Committee which had under consideration the making of the present Radio Act, said:

> The question of monopoly in radio communication must be squarely met. It is inconceivable that the American people will allow this newborn system of communication to fall exclusively into the power of any individual, group, or combination.
>
> Radio communication is not to be considered as merely a business carried on for private gain, for private advertisements, or for entertainment of the curious. It is a public concern impressed with the public trust and to be considered primarily from the standpoint of public interest to the same extent and upon the basis of the same general principles as our other public utilities.

Notwithstanding this early and prophetic warning, it cannot be gainsaid that a monopoly of radio is now insistently claimed by a group, and that its power and influence is so subtle and effective as to portend the greatest danger to the fundamentals of American republican government. No greater issue presents itself to the citizenry. A monopoly of mere property may not be so bad, but a monopoly of the voice and expression of the people is quite a different thing. The doctrine of free speech must be preserved. The use of the air for all, not for the few, must be protected. Shall the big business interests have the air, and thus the average man be denied it? It does not in reason suffice that he may hear what others say to him. He also has the natural right to speak. Your congressmen and senators are already fully advised of this issue. Do not delay in imparting to them of the American backbone of their constituencies.

That the radio has great educational worth goes without saying. For, radio is but the human voice at long range, and may be the voice of an instructor, whether school teacher, preacher, or statesman. One good lesson from a single instructor may reach millions.

It is not my purpose to discuss the technical problems of education by radio. Proper use of the radio in education can best be devised by professional educators. They have already made marked progress on that line. The report of the Advisory Committee on Education by Radio, appointed by Secretary Wilbur, is interesting and enlightening. The work now being done on the subject, at the Office of Education in Washington, will undoubtedly further advance the right use of the radio in education. It is also encouraging that school officials and universities in many of the states are definitely considering the subject by experiment and otherwise.

By no means will it be amiss here to recommend that all who have not done so, read the forceful exposition on the subject of the use of the radio in education by Joy Elmer Morgan, the editor of *The Journal of the National Education Association.* It appears under the heading "Radio and Education" in a worthwhile book recently appearing, entitled *Radio and its Future,* edited by that brilliant and useful radio writer, Martin Codel.

Under our system of radio, which sprang into being before we could discern the real and higher uses for which radio is naturally intended, the broadcasting stations are largely commercially owned and operated. The small minority owned and operated by educational institutions have not been able, because of the tardiness of public appropriations in comparison with the leaps and bounds of private funds, to compete for high position in the radio setup. The commercial ownership and operation of radio stations presents the major problem in the use of radio for real educational purposes. Shall education by radio be left to the direction of commercial interests? Concededly educational programs over the radio should be devised and directed by professional educators. How is this to be done in view of the existing commercial ownership and operation? Will the legislatures provide appropriations of money with which to buy time on the commercially owned and operated stations? Will those stations fairly allocate time for educational uses even when pay is tendered? These and many other questions arise. They cannot be definitely answered now. An evolutionary process will naturally aid in the solution. Radio is intended for a higher use than that now made of it. The enlightened mind of the public will eventually prevail. Already the listeners are becoming sick of the overdose of commercial advertising given them hourly. Auctioneering speeches, sales talks, price quoting, and the like have become so prevalent that the very excess of the same will do good in reminding the people of radio's real province and worth.

Many broadcasting stations, though commercially owned and operated, have been liberal in lending their facilities to the educators for the enlightenment and uplift of the people. Each of the great broadcasting chains have done remarkable altruistic work in this line, particularly in giving to the public the great events of the day. "The American School of the Air" over the Columbia System is an example of the worth of radio in the schools. It is significant that the same is to be continued, out of the approval of the large majority of the state school departments, and the disapproval of none. Another fine example is "The Ohio School of the Air." These experiments, if even they may be called that, are proving the better uses of radio. They have shown that radio broadcasts may be made highly mentally creative. I am one who believes, from the experience of more than two years as a government radio official, that the public generally appreciates the service thus rendered in return for the grant of the public license. They are satisfied that the licensee shall properly make money to support his station, when by his giving them some purely cultural programs they observe that he is willing to return to them something for the license which they have granted him.

It is remarkable to note that one prominently connected with broadcasting has recently stated that "when education joins hands with radio it enters the show business." He stated further, "We have to cover our pills of education with chocolate or licorice or peppermint if we are going to reach the people to whom the information is going to be most welcome." What sort of an indictment of the American public is this? It plainly implies that pure educational or cultural matter is hard for the American people *to swallow*. Personally, I have not so far lost faith in the *good taste* of our public. At least ninety percent of them need no showmanship or sugar coating to induce them to appreciate that which is educational. That ninety percent have always believed in direct methods of education and believe yet in the same.

As children they took to lessons for useful life without persuasion; and they have given their children a birth and heritage which make the latter likewise eager for knowledge. What is this sugar coating to be, in the mind of the gentleman quoted? Doubtless a phase of insidious advertising, clothed with jazz music, so that after all a revenue may be exacted even in connection with educational broadcasts. What greater antidote to kill education by radio than a mixture of commercial advertising or jazz entertainment with it? Here the educators must take a firm stand. It does not comport with the history and growth of our American schools for commercialism, or even useless entertainment, to enter them.

Under the present law a license to use a valuable wave length for money making purposes is granted without license fee therefor. Should not the license by law, through an amendment of the Act, be required to give a consideration for the license granted him? We need not so much care for a money consideration, though in view of the enormous cost of radio administration, a licensee should be required to pay that. But assuredly the law should be amended so as to require a direct return to the public, one stipulated in the law, for the license which is granted by them. Such an amendment could well be that the licensee of a broadcasting station should give daily a period of time on the air to a program sent out from the Office of Education at Washington. The length and time of day of the period should be stipulated in the judgment of Congress. We could depend on such a program being informative, educational, uplifting, patriotic, and inspiring. The chief school officials in each state would, of course, be asked to cooperate. It would be a program coming from the people themselves, through their representatives. It would open the way for a program wholly independent of any selfish influence. Through it the history of our country, the fundamentals of our form of government could daily be reviewed in the hearts of the men, women, and children who are, and are to be, our citizens.

The details of the working out of such a radio program need not be considered here. All that would be in the hands of unselfish, loyal, patriotic educators, men and women devoting their lives to the best interests of mankind, regardless of salary. To my mind, the continuance of our great government rests largely in the hands of our educators. God grant that they may never yield to the financial temptations of the day. By all means let us entrust them, under warrant of law, through the guidance of the Commissioner of Education of the Federal Government, with an hour of uplifting radio program daily on every licensed broadcasting station, large and small. We have the right, in the judgment of ourselves through Congress, to do this. Let us reclaim at least this much of what we have given over unadvisedly for merely commercial use. It will be a step toward devoting radio broadcasting to the higher use that will eventually come out of the sense and judgment of our people.

Things in radio in the last few years have so evolved without prophetic guidance that now we should inaugurate at least one step toward what belongs to the real public interest, convenience, and necessity. This is an unpopular doctrine. I have been woefully harassed because I advocate it. You will observe that I still persist. Those of my ancestry who crossed the Alleghenies to make the land to be beautiful as it is today between those mountains and the Ohio, were likewise persistent.

One last word, a quotation, subtle in meaning, though it may be, since it is here applied to radio: "Unfortunate indeed is the generation that forgetteth the memories of its fathers."

THE USE OF RADIO IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING—OUTLINE

RICHARD S. LAMBERT, EDITOR, *The Listener,* LONDON, ENGLAND

1. The obstacles to international understanding
   - (a) Ignorance—wrong ideas about foreign peoples
   - (b) Narrow channels of communication between peoples through governments and diplomats
   - (c) Barriers of language
   - (d) Divergent material interests.
2. The characteristics of radio
   - (a) Its universality. Could there again be a world without listeners?
   - (b) Its annihilation of distance. Like air-travel, it oversteps frontiers and other national barriers.
   - (c) Limitation of ether space—in position of selfcontrol upon the nations using radio. The International Broadcasting Union at Geneva.
3. Radio an antidote to extreme nationalism. No such thing as exclusive broadcasting. The habit of foreign listening cannot be eradicated. One-sided propaganda on the air does not pay.
4. What listening to foreign programs accomplishes in Europe
   - (a) Stimulates familiarity with foreign tongues and encourages learning of languages.
   - (b) Widens the taste in music, drama, etc. Raises the standard of criticism and appreciation.
   - (c) Causes the listener to feel that a foreign country is helping to provide him with good entertainment.

5. International Program Developments in Radio. The listening to foreign programs has stimulated the demand for more material of this sort on one's own national programs. Hence:
   (a) Growing practice of relaying international music programs to several countries at once, such as King George's speech at opening Naval Conference
   (b) The giving of national programs simultaneously by all European countries.

6. Where language difficulties are not a barrier, radio permits the leaders of thought in one country to speak direct to the peoples of other countries. The language of old-fashioned diplomacy is dropped, and familiarity is developed.

7. *General* educational influence of radio strongly shown in the promotion of international understanding. In Britain we believe it is impossible to neglect the use of radio for even more specific educational purposes. It is in our *schools* that the international mind has to be implanted in the minds of our children. They must be accustomed to a real sense of familiarity and kinship with other peoples. This is the task of the *teacher*—but how to be accomplished?

8. Radio as a supplementary force in the schools, making for international understanding. In British schools this is done by:
   (a) Travel talks by great explorers, travelers, anthropologists, etc.
   (b) Descriptions of foreign life by those experienced in it
   (c) Geography lessons.

   All is *supplementary* to the classroom teacher and does not trench upon his ground direct.

9. Radio as a force for keeping the intelligent listener in general abreast of what is going on in the world around. The dangers of *specialization* in our hurried life. Radio the greatest of popularisers of knowlege and ideas, and the greatest of stimulators. Humanizing the knowledge and thought and discovery of the expert, so as to bring them within the range of the ordinary citizen. The intelligent listener may come to look on radio as his guide and adviser in the things of the mind. An instance of its effect is the weekly commentary on foreign affairs, across the British radio.

10. Radio thus lays an *intellectual and spiritual foundation for internationalism.* The interlocking of material interests is not alone a safeguard against war, religion, pacifism, and progressive political forces have not been able to stem the danger themselves. The only safeguard is a common spiritual foundation for all the nations, based upon a continuous interchange of ideas and a personal familiarity with one anothers' habits and problems. Can any other force but radio perform this function? Radio is the servant of youth, in its determination to contribute its share to the making of a better world.

PROGRESSIVE TEACHERS

WILLARD E. GIVENS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OAKLAND, CALIF.

Progressive teachers believe that what we want in our nation we must put into our schools. They believe in freedom rather than restraint, pupil initiative rather than teacher domination, activity rather than passivity, child interest rather than teacher demands, creative selfexpression and experience rather than conformity and adjustment, cooperative living rather than autocratic control. Progressive teachers believe that education is a drawing out process rather than a pouring in process.

Classroom teachers are the most vital and important individuals in the public schools of America. You are the ones who daily come in contact with girls and boys, instruct and inspire them. All boards of education, superintendents, principals, and supervisors have but one great function to perform —that of creating and maintaining school situations in which you classroom teachers can do your work with girls and boys most effectively.

Earth is crammed with Heaven
And every common bush afire with God,
Yet only he who sees takes off his shoes.

Are you living up each day to the responsibilities and opportunities which are yours? Your work is more than a job, and your pay is more than money. Do you realize that in your work with children that one single idea may have greater weight than the labor of all the men, animals, and engines for a century? You are working constantly with the minds and souls of children; do not underestimate your piece of work.

All work that goes on in the world can be classified into two groups—work with human beings and work with material things. Your work is with human beings who create and give value to material things. You who are in the classrooms of America are constantly working with human lives and molding them.

Do you have a thorough preparation and a broad, rich background for your work? The best preparation which you can get is neither broad enough nor deep enough to enable you to meet and solve wisely all of the intricate problems which come to you each day in the classroom.

Are you justly proud of your profession? Are you glad for people to know that you are a teacher? Why not? You are employed in the work of instructing, inspiring, and guiding the girls and boys of this country. I am glad that we cannot separate our teaching from our daily living—that our character is under the most searching scrutiny of critical eyes. Our lives are open books. Our work demands of us an exceptional standard of conduct. I am proud of the fact that in our profession of almost a million people in this country, seldom does any teacher bring disgrace upon himself or dishonor upon our profession. Our profession so uniformly meets its obligations, so effectively does its work, so decently conducts itself as to be almost inconspicuous in this sensation loving age. This is due to the character and ideals of our teachers.

We are engaged in the most worthwhile work being done by any group of human beings. As we are gathered here at this great national convention which serves as the shrine of our profession, let us pledge ourselves anew to the best interests of the girls and boys of this country and be proud of our profession or be honest and sincere enough to get out of the profession and get into a line of work with which we are proud to be associated.

Progressive teachers are growing teachers. As you work in the classrooms with human lives, if you are a growing teacher, your goal is never reached. Your ideals are constantly enlarged and elevated. No teacher is so unhappy as the one who has had his dreams come true. Ideals are like stars; you will not succeed in touching them with your hands, but like the seafaring man on the desert of waters, you choose them as your guides, and following them, you reach your destiny.

Your real growth in the teaching profession depends upon a healthy dissatisfaction with results and a keen realization that you as a classroom teacher have problems to be solved that are peculiarly your own. If you are a growing teacher, you constantly face your problems, analyze them, apply solutions, and determine results.

The wise administrators and supervisors are eager to help you, but if they solve your problems for you they are hindering your growth.

We are blind until we see
  That in the human plan
Nothing is worth the making
  If it does not make the man.
Why build these cities glorious
  If man unbuilded goes?
We build the world in vain
  Unless the builder also grows.

As a growing classroom teacher, whether you are teaching in a little red schoolhouse in the lost woods district or in one of the most elegant chambers in the finest tabernacle of learning in any of our large cities, you have problems enough to challenge a thorough preparation, an enthusiastic effort, and a devoted consecration. Every individual teacher determines the size of his job by the manner in which he meets this challenge.

Progressive classroom teachers are resourceful, flexible, and have initiative and creative ability. If you are a resourceful teacher, you do not confuse much talking with real teaching. Those of you who give genuine leadership to the girls and boys are frequently in the background. As a resourceful teacher, you shape situations so that growth and creative work are natural outcomes. You are much more interested in the growth of your children than you are in the honor that is being bestowed upon you as a leader. You are perfectly willing to miss the glamour and show so long as you are instrumental in building situations where the best in each child is developed and where each is growing and creating.

As a progressive classroom teacher, you have a deep philosophy of life and a sound philosophy of education. You do not confuse essentials with non-essentials. You realize that there is much more to be done than you can do, but your philosophy does not let you become discouraged at this fact but helps you to select those activities most worthwhile and to pursue them vigorously and cheerfully. You do not allow yourself to worry, for you realize that "the mass of people worry themselves into nameless graves, while here and there a great unselfish soul forgets itself into immortality."

You have no time except the present. You use whatever is helpful from the past. You instruct, inspire, and guide for the future, but you have no time except today.

> Today is what you have. It is also what you are. And again, today is what you do. If you haven't anything and aren't anybody, and do nothing, why, then for you there is no today. Today is joy. Today is work. Today is play. Today is love. Today is life. Yesterday is no problem for it is past. Tomorrow is no problem for it isn't here. Today is your opportunity. Crowd in upon it then. Take hold upon its faintest chance. Spread your smiles today. Be game today. Be glad and great today. Today you may start out all anew. Today you may put to use what you learned yesterday. Above all things do not fear today; do not worry about yesterday; do not fret about tomorrow. Work, think, help, love, and live today.

As a progressive teacher, you are a learner, a student of education and of life. You know your subjectmatter thoroughly. You have mastered the best methods of instruction in your field and you are above all a student of each boy or girl who comes into daily contact with you. You know the world and life as it is being lived today. You love books and use them constantly, but you do not cloister yourself with them to the exclusion of the joys and problems of every-day life.

You are above all other things a fine type of human being. You have personality, health, poise, and freedom from worry. You are broad-minded, open-minded, fair, sincere, just, and impersonal in your decisions.

You are internationally minded and free from race prejudice. You praise the good qualities in all races and say nothing about their faults. You realize that we are living in an age when the application of science to every-day life has made all nations our neighbors.

> This is an age of wonders, of whispers that carry across continents; of ships that climb the clouds; of living pictures of people long dead; of mechanisms that speak with the voices of men.

You are devoted to world peace because you know the folly and futility of war. You believe and teach that all problems can be settled without war if we are intelligent, broad-minded, fair, and tolerant enough to look at both sides of a question, and are willing to take the time and effort to get acquainted and really know our neighbors. You are fully cognizant of the fact that your attitude toward other peoples, toward peace and war, and toward all vital problems—if it is intelligent and tolerant—is a strong and impelling force in molding the conduct and character of the girls and boys of America.

If you believe, practise, and teach the law of love rather than the law of force, most of your girls and boys will follow your example.

The mind has a thousand eyes,
And the heart but one;
Yet the light of a whole life dies
When love is done.

You place character above everything else. You realize that the strongest element in character development in your classroom is your own personal character, that your personal ideals and conduct play a far more important role in the lives of your children than anything you say or teach. You realize that unless your private life and conduct square up with the ideals of our profession that your influence does more harm than good and that you are drawing your salary under false pretenses, because in our profession we are paid for what we are as well as for what we do.

Are you a progressive teacher? If so, you are well prepared. You are proud of our profession. You are growing. You are resourceful, have initiative, and creative ability. You have a deep philosophy of life and a sound philosophy of education. You are a learner, a student of both life and education. You are a fine human being, internationally minded and free from race prejudice. You place character above everything else and believe that example speaks louder than words. You practise the law of love and know that every teacher comes down to the end of his professional career bearing in his hands only that which he has given away.

In keeping with the ideals of this great organization, let us consecrate ourselves anew to the welfare of the girls and boys of America and pledge allegiance to America's public schools and to the ideals for which they stand, that we may prepare a generation that shall meet responsibility with courage, that shall not shrink from labor nor have contempt for it, that shall know what to do with leisure and how to enjoy life without dissipation.

RECOGNIZING AND DEVELOPING CREATIVE ABILITY IN THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD

FLORENCE M. HALE, STATE SUPERVISOR OF RURAL SCHOOLS, AUGUSTA, MAINE

In the history of education, there has never been a time when the creative impulse was so overpowering a factor in school procedure as it is today. The requirements of this surprising new world in which we find ourselves mean indeed that a new heaven and a new earth have opened up before us in almost startling intensity. The generation of young people whom we are educating for their work in this new world are imbued with this spirit of creative desire to an almost painful extent. To fail to recognize its potential qualities in the boy or girl may result in tragedy in the case of the exceptionally brilliant mind and in dogged sullen idleness in the case of the less gifted pupil.

Especially must teachers who have been in the profession several years be very sure that they do not look only for their own time-honored ideas of what ability is. This new world of science, of moving pictures, of radio has created a need for new abilities, new creative objectives, that cannot be evaluated by old-time standards. Colonel Lindbergh, the indifferent college student, now becoming a wizard of the air; Rudy Valleé, the excellent college student, amassing fame and fortune as a radio hero; Marion Talley, creating a vivid ambition for fame in music in the young school girl's mind and, perhaps with the same creative impulse, leaving it to come closer to growing things on her western farm, are typical of what we may expect of the younger generation.

We may or may not approve of these new fields, this new sort of fame for our young people, but that will make no difference, for this new generation will not be held back by our leading strings. We can, however, direct such impulses, recognizing them and guiding them with the light of our experience, until they shall become a real science like the achievement of Lindbergh or an artistic success like Valleé rather than a foolhardy or melodramatic exhibition of reckless youth.

The best public schools have already taken account of this creative impulse in their courses of study, featuring creative seat work, creative work in literature as illustrated in Hugh Mearns' *Creative Youth,* and creative instead of imitative art. This is a right procedure in harmony with the demands of the times. Today, teachers must be especially alert to detect unusual ability and a child's individual bent towards certain achievements. It is our task to capture these impulses at the right moment and lead them wisely to fruition. Perhaps all this means a richer, bigger heart in our teaching as well as keener eyes intellectually speaking.

PIONEERING AGAIN

WILLIAM JOHN COOPER, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

The eve of any great festal day is marked by a heightening of the emotions and the eve of the nation's birthday is no exception to the rule. The day and hour of this meeting compel the mind of a student of history to take a backward look. This place of meeting also suggests an appeal to history. We are in a city named for the discoverer of the continent—the capital city of the first state carved out of the old northwest territory—and this state is rich in historical events and is justly proud of its contributions to the life of our nation. As one evidence of this feeling is a splendid group in the capitol grounds representing seven sons of Ohio who bore the heat and burden of four bloody years—Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Chase, Stanton, Garfield and Hayes. I need not remind you that Ohio is the mother state of seven presidents, including him who was the only man ever to hold both the highest executive and the highest judicial office within the gift of our people. And finally for every teacher, the mention of "northwest territory" brings to mind those famous words of the fathers of the republic, "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

On such an occasion and in such a place the United States Commissioner of Education is invited to address the official representatives of some eight hundred thousand American teachers. It is difficult to decide just what to say out of the chains of thought suggested by this coincidence. First of all I take a backward look. To our Atlantic seaboard citizens this state even today is known as the West. Your president, through whose kind invitation the Commissioner of Education is present, is from the Trans-Mississippi West, and the speaker is from the very far West. This combination of circumstances seems to indicate the appropriateness of a backward look with a view to summarizing some influences of the West on the development of the nation. I shall go back exactly one century and ask you to think of the United States in 1830. At that date the territory south of the river had been sufficiently well settled to furnish the four states of Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi. From territory north of the river the states Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois had been created, and the territory of Michigan was rapidly filling up. The census of 1830 showed more than twenty-five percent of America's thirteen million people living west of the Appalachian Mountains. Ohio alone had more people than Massachusetts and Connecticut combined and half as many as all historic New England. These seven states were very much alike in the character of their population.

"The Westerners of 1830," we are told by the historian, Willis Mason West, "were developing into an American type to remain the dominant one for two generations, tall, gaunt men, adventurous and resolute, of masterful temper daunted by no emergency." This picture, I am sure, calls to the mind of everyone who reads it that true representative of the West, Abraham Lincoln, born in Kentucky, reared in Indiana and Illinois. Crude men they appeared to such distinguished foreigners as Charles Dickens, who caricatured the settlers of this very region in his *Martin Chuzzlewit*. "The West was democratic and self-confident," we are told. "It believed in the worth of the common man and in his capacity. Its chief habits of mind were a rude and wholesome optimism and an impatience of the claims of authority."[1] Of our foreign visitors, M. de Tocqueville alone appreciated this spirit. He has preserved an anecdote of a densely crowded assembly through which certain dignitaries were trying to force their way. "Make way there," they cried, "we are the representatives of the people." "Make way yourselves," came back the retort, "we are the people."[2]

Education had little place in this early western life as all who know the life of Lincoln realize. But it must be remembered that those who settled this great interior of our continent and pushed its frontiers ever westward were the hardy survivors of bloody struggles with the Indians, since it was not until the decade of the 1830's that the frontier communities in this northwest territory were freed from the imminent threat of the tomahawk.

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[1] West, Willis Mason. *American History and Government*, p. 473. Allyn and Bacon, New York City, 1913.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 475.

Yet the representatives of this new country were making themselves felt in the councils of the nation. Speaking of the eastern indifference toward American claims on the Oregon country, Senator Benton, of Missouri, cried: "It is time that western men had some share in the destinies of this Republic." [1]

Under the leadership of Clay of Kentucky, who sponsored "internal improvements," there were developed thousands of miles of canals, and the national pike was extended westward reaching this city about 1830. This new West had its first representative in the White House, the rough and ready warrior who followed that cultured and refined New Englander, John Quincy Adams. President Jackson shocked the sensibilities of many men of the older sections but expressed the new nationalism of the pioneer when he proposed in unequivocal terms the toast "Our Federal Union, it must be preserved."

During the next two decades this new West negotiated the compromises which settled most of the controversies between the old North and the old South, and it was to fall to the lot of the second generation of Westerners to decide momentous issues in our history. They were destined to answer the question of free labor *versus* slave labor by wiping out slavery forever. They were to settle the question of state rights as against federal authority by crushing those states which insisted that the handling of slavery was their own peculiar problem and nobody else's business. For these men of the West had made their homes under the federal flag and had received their homesteads under acts of Congress before they had state flags and state legislatures. In the minds of those who had lived in territories there was little doubt about this issue, since the federal government had authorized the creation of the state governments.

At the end of the hundred years much of this old Northwest finds itself east of the center of population and having more problems in common with the Atlantic seaboard than with the Trans-Mississippi West. But it took the lead in making us a nation and in promoting movements which have materially changed our federal government. Ever since the victory of the federal arms of 1865 people have come to look more and more to the national government at Washington to solve their problems. Amendments 14 and 15, when enforced, Amendment 16, empowering Congress to collect taxes on incomes, and Amendment 18 regarding prohibition, together with many statutes growing out of "implied powers," have changed our government fundamentally in that they bring national officers in direct contact with the individual citizen.

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[1] *Ibid.*, p. 449.

This tendency to place more power in the hands of the federal government, evident since the close of the civil war, has doubtless been due in part to improved transportation and communication which make geographical areas in fact smaller, and in part perhaps to the growth of great business combinations. There are now powerful influences which recognize no state lines and for which state and local governments are no match. But curious results have followed from the concentration of power in Washington. Among these I name only a few.

First, our federal government was one of limited authority and planned in a way to prevent the abuse of powers given it. Students of the Constitution have pointed with pride to the "checks and balances" provided. It was intended by the fathers that the two houses of Congress should be a check on each other; that the executive and legislative branches should check each other, and that the Supreme Court, through the interpretation of the Constitution, might check the other two branches. This government of checks and balances still remains in a day of increased powers, frequently bringing confusion and helplessness rather than business efficiency in the discharge of these powers. The machinery of government has not been revised to keep pace with the changed functions of government.

Second, this increase in power has kept the citizen's eyes on the government at Washington. Whereas he formerly did things for himself through personal effort or political activity in his local government, he now looks to the federal government to solve his problems. In administration this tendency has brought into being the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. It urges new departments for veterans' affairs and for such interests as education and public health and welfare, heretofore regarded as strictly local interest.

Third, effort to exercise power always follows the vesting of power. As great corporate interests have been accused of trying to control officers, so the people will attempt to direct the actions of these officers. This movement has been commonly known as the growth of democracy. Lincoln believed in a government "of the people, by the people and for the people." Yet, judging from the Declaration of Independence and the writings of the fathers, even of such democrats as Jefferson, one comes to the conclusion that these early statesmen were not so much interested in a government *by* the people as in a government *of* the people, or as they expressed it, in a government "by the consent of the governed." In the Constitution itself the method provided for electing the president presumed the selection of groups of men whose votes would be cast in such a way that the ablest man in the nation would be selected for president and the second ablest for vicepresident. But George Washington only was selected after this fashion. The Constitution was then changed in response to popular demand and practise has further modified the procedure until today the machinery is merely a matter of form. The voters are called upon to select the president of the United States. And they do it except when the antiquated machinery effects the election as chief executive of a man receiving a minority of the popular vote. It is also obvious that the original plan for the Senate was to allow the people of the states to elect legislatures each in its own way and for these legislators to send the two ablest men in that state to the United States Senate. In 1913 the Constitution was amended, and each state was compelled to have its senators elected by direct vote of the people. Of course no one foresaw that this might carry with it the temptation to expend tens and even hundreds of thousands of dollars in the larger states on the part of wealthy persons who were ambitious to sit in the United States Senate, or that it would tempt powerful interests to spend money to elect their agents to that body.

It seems to me that not even today do our people realize the implication for education in this basic change in our government and our relations ot it. If the people are to elect the president directly, they need be acquainted not only with the powers of his office and the limitations put on him, but they should be able to formulate a policy of action on great economic and social questions. If the people may select the senators who are to ratify treaties with foreign nations, it is incumbent that the voters themselves know more about our foreign relations. Any adviser of a candidate who was running for the United States Senate today would tell him to oppose a World Court or a League of Nations or any other similar arrangement for the settlement of national disputes. He would do this knowing that the great majority of American voters belong in one or the other of two classes—those recently naturalized citizens who had come from Europe to get away from European affairs and who believe in American isolation; and second, graduates of American public schools who had been taught the views of Washington, Jefferson, Monroe, and other early fathers of the republic, on this subject, but who do not know that world conditions today, due to modern transportation and communication, are vastly different from world conditions prevailing when those recommendations were made. Unless a person is reasonably intelligent on how much the globe has shrunk and on the fact that the next war will be one primarily of chemistry rather than physics, he is in no position to say whether or not we should depend upon the former policy of settling disputes by war when necessity arises or whether we should enter some sort of a tribunal for the settlement of disputes by peaceful means.

Education for the proper discharge of civic duties is one of the problems facing the pioneers of the 1930 decade. Some of the qualities of the older pioneer are still assets, but new tools are also needed to perform new tasks. A strong body, an indomitable will, courage in physical peril, and simple tools were sufficient to wrest a continent from uncontroled vegetation, wild beasts, and Indians. Some of this equipment, though desirable, is not required for attacking the problems of 1930, but qualifications not required in 1830 are essential today. I have already referred to the increased scope of actual knowledge which the citizen must possess to vote intelligently today. The new nationalism of civil war days gave us the publicly controled college of agriculture and mechanic arts, and the generosity of such far-sighted business men as Lawrence and Sheffield placed the natural sciences on a parity with the older classical studies in our conservative endowed colleges. Nearly fifty years ago one of our leading thinkers, Lester F. Ward, advocated a system of education which would extend "to all members of society such of the extant knowledge of the world as may be deemed most important.'[1] Recent trends in legal, medical, dental, engineering, nursing, and teacher education indicate a growing recognition of the need of applying extant knowledge to the problems faced by professional workers in these various fields. Technical institutes and schools of business, generally pioneered by philanthropists, represent applications of the same principle. But institutes of human relations, euthenics courses, and institutes of politics or international relations are still rare and are regarded in many quarters with suspicion.

Within a century our industrial and business progress has amazed the world and placed us in a position of unquestioned leadership. This progress has been due primarily to two facts: the study of scientific processes and the invention of machinery. Jove's bolts and Thor's hammer, which inspired awe and induced worship on the part of our ancestors and which had aroused the curiosity and study of skeptical Benjamin Franklin, have come to be understood through the work of Carnot, Faraday, Maxwell, and others. Through the painstaking work of Edison and his colleagues they now light our homes, turn our spindles, move freight and passengers, convey our thoughts to distant friends and business associates, and enable us to sit in "robe and slippers" listening to the world's entertainers and thinkers. Quite rightly we have only praise for those who have made possible this progress. "Railways, telephones, telegraphs, and radio broadcasting," writes Professor Pupin, "electric lights, automobiles, and laborsaving devices; electrical transmission of power for the purpose of lightening the burdens of man and beast: all these things are today the honey of our modern civilization. They make human life sweeter and more enjoyable; by eliminating drudgery they afford more leisure for the spiritual, the esthetic, and intellectual activity of the human soul."[2]

We seem to grasp at once the advantages of those things which relieve our muscles of toil and which bring comforts and luxuries into our everyday existence. We appreciate, even if we do not understand, the basic sciences which make these goods possible. Consequently, we find little hesitation on the part of state legislatures and of men of wealth to provide funds for buildings and expensive equipment for physics and chemistry. Great engineering and electrical laboratories appear upon the campuses of our institutions of higher learning.

The coming of many of these comforts was predicated some seven hundred years ago by Roger Bacon, who pointed the way to securing them. Stop looking back, give up studying books and study the world around you—

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[1] Ward, Lester F. *Dynamic Sociology*. Vol. II, p. 568. D. Appleton and Co., New York, N. Y.

[2] Pupin, M. I., in *Popular Research Narratives*, Vol. II, p. 5.

this in brief was his message. Why should not the pioneers of 1930 try this plan in the field of the social sciences? There seem to be those who think that all knowledge of economics is to be found in the work of Adam Smith; who look to the fathers of the republic for all political wisdom in the solution of twentieth century problems; who seek in the cultures of the past all materials necessary for presentday education; who believe that all deep insights into the souls of men were possessed by those saints long since in Paradise. We are not making such remarkable progress in solving our international relations, in achieving human brotherhood, in eliminating vice, crime, and immorality, in understanding man's appetites and habits, and in improving his methods of thinking that we can feel satisfied with the old methods. By following the paths blazed by the Clarks, Boone, and other pathfinders, we have won a continent; by accepting the painful path pointed out by Bacon, we have achieved a comfortable existence not enjoyed by kings or dreamed of as realized by even the celestial throng in Bacon's day. Perhaps by following the path indicated by our leading economists, psychologists, and sociologists, the pioneers of 1930 may bring to pass the Kingdom of God on this continent. First we must get the facts. Our colleges need well-equipped laboratories and well-paid staffs in economics, political science, psychology, education, and sociology. We need college trustees and presidents who will encourage real research and courageous teaching in these fields. We need newspaper editors and other leaders of public opinion who will rejoice as heartily in the discovery of new facts in these fields as they do when a new machine has been perfected or another human disease conquered.

But more than mere knowledge is required to insure progress. The principle of the electric magnet may remain a mere academic fact, or be utilized as a plaything, or be made to develop an electric era in the history of the world. There is a vast difference between knowing the right thing to do and doing it, as was pointed out many centuries ago by a Greek historian. There was an old man, Plutarch tells us, who went to see the Olympic games. When he arrived there were no seats left and he wandered from section to section hunting a possible vacant place. When he reached the section occupied by the Spartans, most of them rose at once and requested him to be seated, whereupon all the Greeks applauded. The old man, turning to the audience, shouted: "Alas, all the Greeks know what is right but only the Lacedemonians practise it." [1] Similar experiences with individuals are had every day. One such is told by the British scientist, Haldane: "A medical friend," he writes, "recently had to deal with two women brought in dying of diabetes to the hospital where he worked. Both had been treated before and taught to inject themselves twice daily with insulin. But one had broken her syringe and had not troubled to replace it at once, while the other had neglected her injection for two days because she was coming to the hospital in any case for another complaint. Attitudes like this are so common that the discovery of insulin has made no appreciable difference to the mortality in England from diabetes."[1] Until we are ready not only to receive new truth in these fields from the Lynds[2] and the Gluecks,[3] but to apply it in our thinking and acting, we cannot achieve the miracles that come from discoveries in the natural sciences. Just as the men of 1830 were opening up the wilderness, were clearing away the undergrowth of centuries and making new crops grow where only wild animals had gone, so the century which lies ahead of us should be marked by the opening up of men's minds, the sweeping away of ideas which have grown up more or less hit and miss through the centuries, and of planting well-established fact where only undounded prejudice has existed, and the careful nurture of the new crop until a new civilization blossoms.

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[1] Ashley, Roscoe Lewis. *American Federal State,* p. 525. Macmillan Company, New York, N. Y., 1911.

INTERDEPENDENCE

JOHN H. FINLEY, ASSOCIATE EDITOR, *The New York Times*,
NEW YORK, N. Y.

The last Fourth of July address made by me was during the War, out in Jerusalem, where a few score American Red Cross workers celebrated the day. We had as guests, however, people more widely representative than were those who were gathered in one place in that same city on Pentecost Day, when, as it is written in the Book of Acts, devout men from every nation under heaven were dwelling there; for there were Arabians and Syrians, Greeks and Armenians, Hebrews and Abyssinians, English and French, Italians and Americans, Jews and Gentiles, Moslems and Christians, sojourners from every part of the planet. Chief among them was the Commander-in-Chief of the British forces, Lord Allenby, the Deliverer of the Holy Land, with his staff. It was a rather delicate undertaking to celebrate our independence in the imposing presence of these distinguished military British guests. But I insisted that it was after all an *Inter*dependence Day—interdependence implying a relationship between independent peoples. I was told later that the doughty Major George Haven Putnam used the same word at the American celebration in London on the same day, but as I was farther east and our celebration was in the morning, I have always claimed priority.

So on this Day of our Independence I would repeat in peace the word which was on our lips in war, interdependence, the dependence of *all* upon *each* and of each upon all, to *make* and *keep* this whole world—and not patches of it here and there—a fit place to which we may conscientiously invite children to come and go to school. Selfdetermination is a brave word, but it would be an ignoble word if it thought only of self. Interdependence is the law of the universe, from the atoms to the stars. As "conduct is," in Herbert Spencer's definition, an "aggregate of interdependent actions performed by an organism," so does man stand, whatever his state, "in interdependent connection with everything that exists." Our manifest destiny is increasing *inter*dependence. It is only through recognition of this that we shall rise to a higher form of independence, where rights and duties hold joint sovereignty.

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[1] Haldane, J. B. S., and others, *The Drift of Civilization,* (A Symposium), p. 81.

[2] Staughton, Robert, and Lynd, H. *Middletown; a Study in Contemporary American Culture.* Foreword by Clark Wissler; Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, N. Y., 1929.

[3] Glueck, Sol Sheldon, *500 Criminal Careers.* A. A. Knopf, New York, N. Y., 1930.

John Fiske, the historian, in his famous lecture on "Manifest Destiny," used to tell, by way of illustrating the type of Fourth of July oratory then prevalent in America, a story of a dinner party of Americans in Paris during the Civil War, at which sundry toasts were proposed concerning the glories of the American nation. The first speaker said:

> Here's to the United States,—bounded on the north by British America, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico, on the east by the Atlantic and on the west by the Pacific Ocean.

The second speaker found this too limited a view of the subject, and insisting that we must "look to the great and glorious future which is prescribed for us by the manifest destiny of the Anglo-Saxon race," added:

> Here's to the United States,—bounded on the north by the North Pole, on the south by the South Pole, on the east by the rising and on the west by the setting sun.

The third speaker, who as Mr. Fiske said in telling the story was a very serious gentleman from the far west, was not content even with these boundaries and said:

> If we are going to leave the historic past and present and take our manifest destiny into account, why restrict ourselves within the narrow limits assigned by our fellow-countryman who has just sat down? I give you the United States, bounded on the north by the Aurora Borealis, on the south by the precession of the equinoxes, on the east by primeval chaos and on the west by the Day of Judgment.

At about the time, however, that John Fiske was repeating this story from London to Waukesha, Wisconsin, we children in a school out on the treeless prairie a little farther west were singing a song the words of which were written on the blackboard just beside the entrance to the little box of a schoolhouse.

Once a man in Androscoggin,
  Or in some outlandish place
With a wish to see this country
  To the westward set his face;
He was weary at Chicago
  So he sat him down to rest
But 'twas only there the center
  Of this fabled land out west;

and the refrain ran:

'Tis a way out in the west
'Tis a way out in the west
Oh, I fear we ne'er shall find it
'Tis so far out in the west.

How near to the America, as bounded by the exuberant third speaker, have we come in these fifty years! Speaking at a reception to Admiral Byrd last week and recalling John Fiske's story, I said that he had done more than any one American to extend our boundaries in the direction at least of the Aurora Borealis and the precession of the equinoxes. An Irishman present objected to locating Primeval Chaos in the east, but according to the latest authority Primeval Chaos is at least two thousand million years away, so that it lies even beyond what we call the Far East. And as for the Day of Judgment, which seemed to me so near, when a boy, that more than once out on the quiet prairies I thought I heard Gabriel's trumpet sounding in the west, it is now, on the same authority, at least two thousand million years in the direction of the other eternity. It is likely that he will not need a trumpet, for the radio by that time will reach every human being at one and the self-same moment, Boston to Bombay and back again.

What is independent America's manifest destiny in a world with such boundaries and with such conveniences of communication? The Declaration of Independence cited "the laws of nature and of nature's God" as a justification for assuming not only a separate but an equal station among nations, and implied that not only Englishmen and colonists were created equal but "all men." It is an "all men" concern to which we are destinated (or I am disposed to say "predestinated" for that was a word with which I became familiar as a boy hearing the farmers discussing after service in the little prairie church "predestination" and "free moral agency"). There being a divinity that shapes our ends (so we have virtually said in our declaration of the nation, as the poet has said of the individual), there must be a destiny, and it is manifest not in what we may selfishly desire, but in what we in our "all men" faith aspire to. Bergson says that it is in the joy of activity in its full expansion that man is accomplishing his destiny. It tells him incidentally in what direction his destiny lies. What is true of the individual is true for the nation. And what is true of the nation is true for the world.

Our supreme national achievement has been the demonstration of the practicability of federation on a large scale. Within this principle, said John Fiske in the lecture to which I have referred, are contained the "seed of permanent peace," and he adds: "To this glorious end I believe it will come 'in the fulness of time.' By the end of a century conditions will be such that it will become desirable for the states of Europe to enter into a federal union as it was for our states a century ago." We are only a half century on the way from the time when this prophecy was made, but Europe is already astir with that vision. Fiske did not know that a world war must first come to clear our sight; nor on the other hand did he dream of the consolidating influence of the telegraph and telephone, the radio and the moving picture, the automobile and the airplane, but he saw that the process of the successive union of groups of men into larger and more complex aggregations, in which America had set the example, would go on. Here is his prophecy:

> I believe that the time will come when such a state of things will exist upon earth, when it will be possible (with our friends of the Paris dinner party) to speak of the United States as stretching from pole to pole [he did not dare to go beyond this boundary, or, with Tennyson, to celebrate the "parliament of man and the federation of the world"]. Indeed, only when such a state of things has begun to be realized, can civilization, as sharply demarcated from barbarism, to be said to have become truly Christian. Many ages of toil and doubt and perplexity will no doubt pass by before such a desideratum is reach. Meanwhile it is pleasant to feel that the dispassionate contemplation of great masses of historical facts goes far towards confirming our faith in this ultimate triumph of good over evil.

In attaining this state the peoples of the earth will become to a greater degree interdependent. Even at the halfway mark our civilized tastes and wants have increased our interdependency.

First, *agriculturally:* The condition of the crops in Argentine is reported by radio to the remotest farmer in Minnesota. This year ninety-seven percent of the land surface of the earth, ninety-eight percent of the population, and ninety-nine percent of the total agricultural and livestock production of the world will be covered by a census undertaken by 170 countries. In the divine economy no national area can satisfy its appetite from its own garden, orchard, or fields. Nowhere does civilized man seem to be content with the propinquitous. Desire is telephilic. The West might have left the Far East alone if it had not wanted its pepper and spices. The East might have gotten on with its rice if it had not tasted the apples of the Hesperides. When in Columbus a few years ago I was interested to note how international in name at least the foods or their dressings were in this inland city bearing the name of America's discoverer. There were tomatoes "Suedoise" (Swedish), mushrooms "Victor Hugo," consomme "Brunoise" (Malayan), minced chicken (Calcutta en cocotte), sweet bread "Argenteuil," salad "Waldorf," and then, as I added

A Macedonian sweet
But not one thing to eat
That sounds indigenous
Or aboriginous
Unless one takes, as I,
A piece of pumpkin pie.

Second, *mineralogically:* Even the inorganic civilized necessities are scattered. Manganese needed for the hardest steel is hidden away in the Caucasus, in India, or Brazil. Nickel is confined to Canada, tungsten to China, and vanadium to Peru. It seems to be the design of the Creator that no one part should be made perfect even inorganically without the others.

Esthetically: We await the modes from Paris or London. Mr. Justice Holmes once said in a letter to a friend of mine: "A fashion in hats goes round the world in six months and is forgotten in a year; we shall come to glory not in immortality but in illocality."

Culturally: We had to import Einstein's theory of relativity and so eager were we to get it that his formulas were sent by cable, there being as yet no tariff on such international commerce except the cable or wireless tolls and our own ability to understand what is sent. We also import Paderewski's playing, Madame Curie's radioactivity, Robert Bridges' *Testament of Beauty,* and export Millikan's cosmic rays, Michaelson's measurement of light's mobility and our various machines for promoting mortal automobility, Edison's miltiple-genius products, Bobby Jones' golf, and Compton's theory of the structure of the atom in competition with Neils Bohr's and others of foreign manufacture. How eagerly even Russia wishes to take part in that commerce is suggested by an experience of my own. When in Reval seeking to get across the border into Russia several years ago, I met a young teacher trying to get out of Russia. I asked whether it was because he found living conditions so bad and he answered, "No, I want to get apparatus and books. We do not know what has gone on in the scientific world outside of Russia during the last four years." And then he added: "I do not know what Langmuir has been doing in Schenectady, New York."

To be sure, now that man has learned how to make synthetic articles of all sorts, foods, dyes, medicines, perfumes, fertilizers, and gems, he no longer has to send to India for indigo or to Peru for febrifuge, to the Congo for rubber, to Mandalay for rubies, or to Turkey for the attar-of-roses. While the old courses of commerce may be disturbed, the new courses both of tangible and imponderable commerce are multiplied a thousandfold by sea and air and land.

There is a higher law of interdependency in our common origin of which we have had increasing proof in these fifty years. Each one of us has two billion ancestors to go back only to the time when Leif Ericson and his men came rowing up the Charles, past the site of Harvard University, in their "sea-battered dragon ships"—more ancestors than there are people in the whole world at the moment. Since as Epictetus said (and we in our Declaration of Independence have acknowledged) from nature's God have descended all beings generated on the earth, why should we not say that we are members of the most comprehensive community which is composed of men and of God—that we are physically, economically, spiritually, citizens of the world, as well as politically independent Americans. It was only our political bonds that were severed that we might become independent, equal participants in an interdependent world.

President Hoover has sent me this special message that I might read it to you. It relates to the children of America. I read it as my peroration:

> The most important work of men and women is to care for boys and girls, to give them a happy childhood, and to equip them for a successful life. Our task is to give every child the opportunity to grow up with a healthy body, a trained mind, a disciplined character, a cheerful faith in himself, and a devotion to our form of government. The public school system is America's distinctive and magnificent ally of the home in this most precious trust.

He above all other citizens of America and of the world has expressed in deeds our concern for the children of this Copernican planet—the "all men" obligation of our Declaration of Independence, whose corollary is the recognition of an interdependent humanity.

When I was graduated from a high school out in this valley which is still to me the heart of America and so the heart of the world—the valley of democracy, to borrow Meredith Nicholson's title which he borrowed, with due credit, from me—I delivered an oration entitled "The Mists are Rolling Away" in which I contended that man had continuously progressed. I come back after nearly fifty years of journeying up and down the earth from this valley all the way back to the traditional site of the Garden of Eden, but with all the optimism of the youth and certainty of Galileo that the world "moves on nevertheless" and that the children of America are to be the new leaders in an interdependent civilization. Through them *you* will lead.

Reports of Committees

MUCH OF the most significant work of the Association is accomplished by committees. The scope of the work carried on by committees during the past year is indicated by the following pages devoted to their reports. Unless otherwise indicated the reports were adopted by the Representative Assembly at Columbus. For discussion concerning reports see Minutes of the Representative Assembly in the latter part of this book. Complete lists of the membership of each committee are also given elsewhere in this volume.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON APPOINTMENT OF DELEGATES AND KINDRED QUESTIONS

PROPOSED CHANGES IN BYLAWS

A. L. THRELKELD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO., *Chairman*

Submitted in 1930; to be voted upon in 1931.

The changes that the committee is recommending in the bylaws are limited entirely to Article II.

ARTICLE II

(*No change in the following section from present Bylaws.*)

Section 1. The election of officers and transaction of business at the annual business meeting shall be by a Representative Assembly composed of delegates apportioned, elected, and governed as hereinafter provided.

(*Only change in the following section is the wording "eleven Vicepresidents."*)

Section 2. At the first business meeting of the Representative Assembly on the second day of the annual meeting of the Association nominations for the following officers shall be made: President, eleven Vicepresidents, and Treasurer. Candidates for said offices shall be nominated from the floor upon roll call of the states. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association the delegates of each state, territory, and district of the United States shall nominate one person for member of the Board of Directors and the name of such person shall be reported to the Representative Assembly at the first business meeting upon roll call of the states. On the fourth day of the annual meeting officers shall be elected from the candidates by the delegates to the Representative Assembly by ballot. Said ballots shall be printed and shall contain the names of all nominees as provided above. Polls for voting shall be open from 8 a. m. to 6 p. m., at such place or places as the President of the Association shall designate. The candidates for President, Treasurer, member of Board of Directors from each state, territory, or district, respectively, and the eleven candidates for the office of Vicepresident receiving the highest number of votes shall be declared elected. The President of the Association shall appoint tellers and complete all arrangements for carrying out the election. The results of the election herein provided shall be announced at the final business session of the Representative Assembly. The officers thus chosen shall continue in office until the close of the annual meeting subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as herein provided. The Secretary and the Treasurer shall enter upon their duties at a date which shall be determined by the Board of Trustees and which shall not be later than the first of October and shall continue in office during the term for which they are separately chosen and until their successors are duly elected. When a change of officers is made, such change shall be accompanied by an audit covering the transactions of business and the holdings of these officers for the preceding year.

(*Beginning with Section 3 the present Article II of the Bylaws is extensively revised.*)

Section 3. A State Teachers' Association or Education Association of any state may become affiliated with the National Education Association, and thereupon shall be designated an Affiliated State Association, and as such shall be entitled to elect to the Representative Assembly one delegate and one alternate for the first fifty (50) of its members or major fraction thereof, one delegate and one alternate for the second one hundred (100) members or major fraction thereof, and one delegate and one alternate for each additional three hundred (300) members or major fraction thereof, provided that its members are active members of the National Education Association and are not assigned to any affiliated local association within that state or if assigned to an affiliated local association they fail to elect a delegate to the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association. In any case a State Teachers' Association or Education Association affiliated with the National Education Association shall be entitled to elect not less than three delegates and three alternates. It shall be entitled to elect as many in excess of this number as the above stipulated apportionment may provide for it. The annual dues of an Affiliated State Association shall be five dollars ($5.00), which shall entitle said Association to receive without application or other condition all regular publications of the National Education Association.

Section 4. A local education association or teachers' organization within a state may affiliate with the National Education Association and thereupon shall be designated an Affiliated Local Association, and as such shall be entitled to elect one delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for the first fifty (50) of its members or major fraction thereof, one delegate and one alternate for the second one hundred (100) members or major fraction thereof, and one delegate and one alternate for each additional three hundred (300) members or major fraction thereof, provided that its members are active members of the National Education Association. The names of such delegates and alternates shall be certified by the Secretary of the Affiliated Association to the Secretary of the State Association, who shall in turn certify them, together with the complete list of delegates and alternates from the State, to the Secretary of the National Education Association. A copy of such certificate shall also be transmitted by the Secretary of the Affiliated Local Association to the Secretary of the National Education Association. The annual dues of the Affiliated Local Association shall be five dollars ($5.00), which shall entitle said Association to receive without application or other condition, all publications of the National Education Association.

Section 5. Each Affiliated State Association shall, together with the Local Affiliated Association within the State, constitute a state unit and as such shall sit in the Representative Assembly.

Section 6. The Board of Directors may provide an equitable plan for paying all or any part of the expenses of delegates to the annual meeting of the Association.

(*Section 5 of the Bylaws as they now are becomes Section 7 and reads as follows:*)

Section 7. Each Affiliated Association, both state and local, shall be furnished a certificate of membership and shall be entitled to the active assistance and support of the National Education Association in promoting the interests of such Affiliated Association and its members, in so far as such interests come within the purposes and objects of the National Education Association as set forth in its Charter (The Act of Incorporation). The Secretary of the National Education Association shall, with the advice and approval of the Executive Committee, in harmony with the policies approved by the Board of Directors, make such arrangements for mutual cooperation between the National Education Association and the State and Local Affiliated Associations as will promote the welfare of all and advance the interests of the teaching profession.

(*Sections 6, 7 and 8 of the present Bylaws to be deleted.*)

Section 8. The President of the National Education Association shall be the President of the Representative Assembly and shall preside at its meetings. In the absence of the President, the ranking Vicepresident who is present, shall preside and in the absence of the President and all Vicepresidents, the Assembly shall, under the direction of the Secretary, elect a Chairman *pro tempore*.

Section 9. The President, the twelve Vicepresidents and the United States Commissioner of Education shall be ex-officio delegates to the Representative Assembly. The President of the Association shall preside at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly, and the Secretary of the Association shall keep the records thereof. In case of a tie the President shall cast the deciding vote.

The officers of the National Education Association, as named in the charter and not included in the ex-officio membership of the Representative Assembly provided for in the above paragraph, may sit with the Representative Assembly with the right to participate in its discussions but not as accredited delegates with the right to vote.

Section 10. Delegates shall file their credentials with the Secretary of the National Education Association on blanks furnished by him for that purpose, not later than twenty days before the beginning of the annual meeting. The Secretary shall turn over such credentials to the Credentials Committee with such information thereon as may be obtained from the records of the Association. The Representative Assembly shall be the final judge of the qualifications of delegates. The delegates shall have equal rights and each delegate shall have one vote. Meetings of the Representative Assembly shall be open to all members of the Association and any member of the Association may address the Representative Assembly upon the invitation of the President or of a majority of the Assembly.

Section 11. The Representative Assembly shall be composed of the President, the twelve Vicepresidents of the National Education Association, the United States Commissioner of Education, and the delegates elected from the various state and local associations as herein provided.

The Secretary of the National Education Association shall provide enrolment blanks with designated space for the name of the Affiliated Association through which each active member wishes representation, and, in computing the number of delegates and alternates to which a state is entitled, no active member shall be counted in any Affiliated Association other than the one so designated.

The Secretary of each Local Affiliated Association shall furnish to the Secretary of the National Education Association and to the Secretary of the State Association a list of its members, who are also members of the National Education Association. The Secretary of the National Education Association shall compute annually, at the close of the membership year, the total number of active members of the National Education Association in each State and also the number of active members accredited to each Affiiliated State and Local Association within each State for that year, and shall on or before the first of October of each year certify to the Secretary of each State Association the number of such active members from the State Association and from each Local Association within the State, together with their names and addresses. He shall also certify to the Secretary of each Affiliated Local Association a list of active members of the National Education Association accredited to it who desire representation in the National Education Association through such local association, together with the number of delegates and alternates it is entitled to elect on the above basis.

All delegates and alternates in the total quota accredited to any State which are not assigned to any Affiliated Local Association in that State, such delegates and alternates as are assigned to Affiliated Local Associations in that State and are not elected by them, and the minimum of three delegates and alternates provided for in Section 3 shall be elected by the State Association.

Provided, that any State upon a vote of the active members of the National Education Association in that State, taken by its State Association, may, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors, modify the details of the plan herein set forth for electing the delegates and alternates to the Representative Assembly assigned to that State. Such action when taken shall be certified by the Secretary of the State Association to the Secretary of the National Education Association and to the Secretaries of the Local Associations within the State.

(*Section 11 of the old Bylaws is deleted.*)

Proposed Amendment to the Report of Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions

Proposed Changes in Bylaws

To be considered with the preceding report.

I. For the first paragraph of Section 9 as proposed by the Committee, substitute the following:

> Section 9. The officers of the National Education Association as named in the Charter and the State Superintendent or Commissioner of Education of each state, territory, and district, shall be *ex-officio* delegates to the Representative Assembly.

Strike out from Section 9 as proposed by the Committee all of the second paragraph as follows:

> "The officers of the National Education Association, as named in the charter and not included in the *ex-officio* membership of the Representative Assembly provided for in the above paragraph, may sit with the Representative Assembly with the right to participate in its discussions but not as accredited delegates with the right to vote."

II. For the first paragraph of Section 11 as proposed by the Committee, substitute the following:

> Section 11. The Representative Assembly shall be composed of the officers of the Association as named in the Articles of Incorporation, the State Superintendent or Commissioner of Education of each state, territory, or district, and the delegates elected from the various state and local associations as herein provided.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE TO COOPERATE WITH THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS IN COLORED SCHOOLS

N. C. NEWBOLD, DIRECTOR, DIVISION OF NEGRO EDUCATION, STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, RALEIGH, N. C., *Chairman*

This committee was first authorized and made permanent by the Association at the meeting in Philadelphia, July, 1926, under the presidency of Mary McSkimmon. She appointed the first committee which included both white and colored members of the National Education Association. It was first designated "A Committee on Problems in Colored Schools." At the convention in Minneapolis in 1928 the committee was reorganized and renamed by Cornelia S. Adair, who was then President of the

Association. It has since been known as "The Committee to cooperate with the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools." Beginning at Minneapolis the committee has had five meetings—the other four being held at Cleveland, February, 1929; Atlanta, July, 1929; Atlantic City, February, 1930, and the fifth here in Columbus, July, 1930.

The present membership of the committee includes 19 persons whose educational interests and activities are varied, and who are fairly representative of the country as a whole.[1]

In the first report of the original committee presented to the N. E. A. in Philadelphia, two recommendations were made:

1. That this committee be one of the permanent committees of the Association.
2. That there be an annual exchange of fraternal greetings between the National Education Association and the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools.

Both of these recommendations were adopted, and have been carried out each year beginning at Minneapolis in 1928.

The committee's report to the Association at Minneapolis in 1928 included five recommendations, which were adopted as follows:

1. That studies or surveys be made by the committee or under its direction:
   a. Collecting data on the status of Negro education in America.
   b. A basic study of the conditions affecting the health of the Negro school child as they exist at the present time.
2. That in at least one program of the general sessions, there be included an address by some leader in Negro education.
3. That a Negro musical organization be invited to furnish the music for at least one program of the general sessions.
4. That the N. E. A. give its sympathetic interest and encouragement to the preparation of a motion picture which will describe on a factual basis the "History of Negroes in America," their struggles, their accomplishments in education, literature, art, music, and in the accumulation of wealth, their contributions to America in industry, agriculture, in the arts and sciences, and in peace and war.
5. That this committee be a permanent one, and that the budget include adequate appropriations for its activities.

Since the adoption of these recommendations, your committee has done what it could to make them effective. Members have recently assisted the National Advisory Committee on Education in its search for information on Negro education. Also, several members of this committee are members of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. Thus, the Minneapolis recommendations regarding studies in Negro education and health are being given serious study by organizations which give promise of some helpful results.

Recommendations 2 and 3 were carried out in the Atlanta meeting a year ago. Dr. Moton, Principal of Tuskegee Institute, gave an address which was one of the outstanding events of the convention. Also, some of the Negro musical organizations of Atlanta, aided by the Tuskegee and Hampton quartettes, gave a musical entertainment at one of the evening sessions. This, too, was highly enjoyed and appreciated by an audience that filled the large Atlanta auditorium.

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[1] The list including both white and colored representatives is printed in the section in the rear of this volume called Associational Records and Information.

Some efforts have been made to secure money and talent to produce the motion picture recommended in the Minneapolis report, but so far, without definite results. We shall try again.

In all the meetings of the committee since Minneapolis—in Cleveland, Atlanta, Atlantic City and here in Columbus, two subjects have claimed most of our attention: (1) The present status of Negro education in America and (2) the health of the Negro school child. As has been previously shown, these are now being studied by two national organizations, the National Advisory Committee on Education, and The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

Other matters which have been given considerable attention in these meetings are the following:

First, the question of soliciting aid from the Federal Government, through the proper channels, to lend its influence in behalf of Negro education, was first proposed at the Cleveland meeting in February 1929. This matter has come up again and again in later meetings, at Atlanta and Atlantic City, and again here in Columbus. A special subcommittee has been appointed to continue the study of the problems of "Equalization of Federal Aid for Negro Education."

In this connection it has been suggested that graduate students could work out a bibliography on Federal Aid which is sorely needed. Also, the graduate students might select the subject of Federal Aid for Negro Education as doctorate theses.

Second, a subcommittee composed of six members has been appointed to select and compile a list of problems on Negro education, this list to be submitted to the various institutions in this country where graduate courses are offered, in the hope that graduate students may be inclined to select from this list some of the topics which most need early study analysis.

This subcommittee is charged also with the responsibility of "finding out what institutions of higher learning in the South have done toward studying problems of the Negro race."

Third, a subcommittee was appointed to aid the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools in setting up objectives for the work of that organization, in any way that may be desired.

Fourth, a subcommittee was appointed to study health education for Negroes in Tennessee, Virginia, and other states. The chairman of this subcommittee in his report to the full committee at Atlantic City said: "there are a few serious attempts to promote health education among Negroes" but so far as he knew there had been no worthwhile general health education program put into operation. Continuing, he states: "With all that has been said and done by the health agencies and officials we are confronted with the fact that tuberculosis among Negroes has reached about the same position as it had among whites a quarter of a century ago. Although the death rate has declined considerably, still the death rate among Negro children of the South is almost six times that of whites of the same age."

The chairman of this subcommittee further reported that a serious study of the problems of Negro health is now being undertaken in Tennessee, which promises to be the most helpful of such studies ever before projected. This study is being made under the direction of the Health Commissioner of Tennessee, and is being undertaken jointly by Fisk University, and the State Health Department. The United States Public Health Service, and various independent and philanthropic agencies are giving full cooperation. The study includes three phases:

1. The first phase consists of a statistical study and includes the most complete statistical analysis of racial differences in mortality, morbidity, and birth rates which it is possible to make from available data.
2. The second phase includes a field epidemiological study as extensive as possible in an effort to make out the various differences discovered by the statistical study.
3. The third phase is the most important, as it will be an inquiry into the methods and agencies necessary to correct the reasons for existing racial differences.

The state boards of health in several of the states, such as Virginia, North Carolina, and others, have carried the message of disease prevention and good health to all the people of both races. Thousands of Negro children have been given remedial treatment in dental clinics, as well as in clinics for removal of diseased tonsils and adenoids. The same widespread interest in the health of Negroes is shown in the well-organized programs for vaccination against smallpox, typhoid fever, and other such preventable diseases.

While these programs are not strictly speaking health education, they are the same as those carried out for white people. There is, therefore, some ground for hopes of *better things* in the health of Negro school children in all the South.

Your committee has cooperated with the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools in another undertaking: The president of that organization a little more than a year ago recommended that a Negro be selected in each state to gather data with regard to Negro education, and to work on some specific problem of research. A member of our committee has consulted the leading sociologist at Fisk University on this matter, and offered any further aid our committee can give.

However far we have gone in our modern educational schemes and practises, it is still true that "as is the teacher, so is the school." While considerable progress has been made in recent years, it is still true that in some states of the South twenty-five percent of the Negro teachers have had only elementary school education, and that another twenty-five percent have had less than four years of high school. Also, if measured by standard requirements, it is doubtless a fact that more than half the other fifty percent would fall short of high-school graduation.

When it is understood, therefore, that approximately 10,000,000 Negroes live in the southern states, that this number constitutes about one-third the total population, and that, in some sections, three-fourths of the teachers have less than a standard high-school education, we shall be able to appreciate in some measure, the tremendous task, both educational and economic, which faces that section of our great common country—our beloved United States of America.

To prevent the picture from presenting too gloomy an outlook it should be stated that in other sections of the South the conditions are reversed. In these sections more than seventy-five percent of the Negro teachers are graduates of four-year high schools, twenty-five to forty percent have two to four years of college education.

In this connection, it is extremely encouraging to note that the Congress of the United States recently appropriated $200,000 to be used in making a thorough study of teacher-training in this country. This study is to be made under the direction of the United States Office of Education. Inasmuch as the need for trained Negro teachers is so urgent—we recommend and urge that a sufficient amount of the sum appropriated be used for a thorough and complete study of the teacher-training facilities and the needs for trained teachers in the Negro schools of America.

In concluding this report, your committee recognizes the fact that the statements given above are only a very brief and imperfect outline of what has been attempted so far, and planned for further action. In view of the fact that education and health are twin paramount needs of the Negro race in this country we recommend:

That the National Advisory Committee on Education now sitting in Washington, study the possibilities of securing the assistance of the Federal Government:

1. In improving and increasing the facilities of the higher institutions for training Negro teachers.
2. In establishing and developing in two or three centers in the South, higher institutions for training doctors, dentists, and nurses for the Negro race.

To this end we request and urge the National Advisory Committee on Education to hold a series of conferences in the southern states, and invite to those conferences outstanding representatives of both races, where all problems involved may be faced frankly, and discussed with intelligence and understanding.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE TEACHER

JOHN K. NORTON, DIRECTOR, DIVISION OF RESEARCH, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

In the absence in Europe of the chairman of the Committee on the Economic Status of the Teacher, Dr. B. R. Buckingham, the following report is presented in his behalf.

The program of investigation and research of the Committee on the Economic Status of Teachers is built around three major topics. The first of these has to do with the scheduling of teachers' salaries. In cooperation with the Research Division the Committee biennially collects the facts as to the salaries paid teachers in cities of all sizes throughout the United States. This service has been gradually extended and will eventually comprehend the facts not only as to compensation received, but also as to the conditions under which it is received, for every group engaged in educational work.

The Committee is sponsoring a series of investigations bearing upon the theory of salary scheduling, which should shed further light as to the principles which should guide the scheduling of teachers' salaries.

As a result of the work of the Committee and other agencies, there is already a body of factual and theoretical material to which those engaged in drafting teachers' salary schedules may appeal, which is superior to that existing for any other professional group. The important matter of salary scheduling is being lifted from the realm of political expediency to one in which scientific facts and the public welfare, as it is bound up in the lives of the nation's children, are the basis of action. One city after another has lifted the scheduling of teachers' salaries to this new level of dignity by financing careful studies as a basis for determining the salaries to be paid teachers.

In furthering this movement the Committee is now engaged in an investigation concerning the cost of living of teachers, which will offer an improved basis for determining the items which should enter into the living costs of a professional teacher.

A second series of investigations is being conducted by the Committee relating to teacher supply and demand. Many loose statements are being made about the oversupply of teachers. At the present time no one knows how many new teachers are being prepared annually or how many are needed. The Committee is collecting the facts on both of these points. The final objective is to bring together the facts and to take the action which will result in a balancing of teacher supply and demand. When there are either too many or too few teachers evil results are the outcome.

The investigation of teacher supply and demand is well under way. Cooperation is being received from state departments of education and from teacher-training institutions throughout the nation.

A third series of investigations sponsored by the Committee has to do with the education of the teacher as to the husbanding of such income as he may have. Teachers are notably poor business people, as are members of all professions. They too easily fall prey to the wiles of the blue-sky operator. The Committee is, therefore, gathering material for dissemination among teachers which on the one hand will warn the teacher against certain dangerous practises relating to investment, and which, on the other hand, will suggest a positive program whereby a teacher, who receives a professional income, may build up an adequate financial competence by the time old age is reached.

This is a comprehensive program which we have in view and under way, as you can see. The resources, however, are relatively limited. The Committee asks that this report of progress be accepted and that the Committee be continued.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ENRICHMENT OF ADULT LIFE

L. R. ALDERMAN, PRESIDENT, DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION; AND CHIEF, SERVICE DIVISION, U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The National Education Association, through its officers, has decided that the time has come when there should be a continuous, united effort to use the increased leisure which has come through this industrial age for the enrichment of human life.

As teachers we have always had for our main objective the enrichment of human life through the education of children and youth. We now have discovered that we cannot successfully segregate generations; that adults in the home and in the community are the molders of the young. We now see more clearly that our educational program, to be effective, must include adults. This program is so comprehensive that no one department of this great organization can adequately deal with it. In a movement that has significance to so many people and is so important to the welfare and happiness of all our people, no one group of workers can rightly assume that they are the appointed ones to carry the torch.

There are thousands of people, not teachers, who are interested in this greatest work of our age, the enrichment of human life. They are anxious to work if the work can be assigned in their particular fields of interest. Real gains can be made if objectives are stated in such clear terms that like-minded people can find one another so that group as well as individual advancement may be made.

Much of this work will be in the line of the development of skills as was pointed out by Dr. L. P. Jacks of England—skills in gardening, landscaping, interior decorating, carving, painting, dancing, music, conversation, and in a hundred other fields. Hobbies can be developed so that they can become contributions to the world's advancement and the means of truest expression of the individual. Skills in the art of appreciation can be multiplied a thousandfold—the world belongs to the man or woman who understands and appreciates it. Possession is a matter of the spirit and of the mind. It is a sad, sad picture to see one who has so neglected his created powers that he is bored by his own company.

This great organization ought to put time and thought on the problem of how to lessen the number of individuals who die mentally and spiritually just at the time in their lives when they should be the most productive. In this great task we ought to mobilize the genius and the strength of the nation for the enrichment of the lives of individuals. The world is going to be made richer to the extent that middle life and old age will be a fitting climax to youth.

Here is an appeal to every member of this great organization of the teaching profession, to strive to become human engineers, to teach for the whole of life. This enlarged concept of teaching is necessary in order that any part of the teaching profession may be in harmony with the whole pattern, as any part of instruction may be that which may give purpose and direction to the whole of life.

This effort to enrich human life through the schools will tend, as a natural consequence, to magnify the most humble task of the most humble teacher into that of the creative arts. It will make evident the necessity that every teacher have a welldefined plan in mind at every step of the teaching process. This makes for the enrichment of the life of those who teach; enrichment by reading, by travel, by noble living.

Teachers, above all others, are interested in the enrichment of human life and must enrich their own lives that their enrichment may flow to others as naturally as goodwill and right thinking flow from one to another.

At the very beginning of any study for the enrichment of human life through the wiser use of leisure time, one is impressed with the larger numbers of our population who need instruction in the most elementary subjects. The educational tests given to the army during the World War disclosed the staggering information that fully one-fourth of the men examined could not read a newspaper or write a letter. Since this testing was done in 1917 conditions have improved, but it probably is true that today there are from fifteen to twenty million adults in this country who are functionally illiterate. This large part of our population has not the educational tools with which to succeed or enjoy life in any adequate way in our civilization. Their greatest need is what the elementary schools have to offer. These neglected men and women are the parents of more children than any other like number of our population. They have the heaviest burden to bear as they work unskilled in an age of skill. By enriching the lives of these millions of our fellow countrymen we also bring light and hope to millions of children. We, as teachers, know how handicapped is a child of an illiterate home. We realize that the most potent influence in the life of a child is the influence of parents and other adults in the home.

A further study of the American people reveals that there are probably twenty million of our population who are not functionally illiterate, but who need sorely what the elementary schools can teach them that they might get into step with our civilization. What a challenge the elementary educational needs of these millions make to the teaching profession! The education of these neglected ones is our nation's greatest problem for the solution of every other national problem is dependent upon the understanding of these millions of our people.

The solution of this problem calls for evening schools in country districts as well as in every village, hamlet, and city. Some localities have made the evening school the means of developing the human resources of the communities in a way that is almost magical in its effects.

Evening schools call for teachers who have the spirit of adventure, who are resourceful and have the art of making learning attractive. Let this great organization take as a major project the problem of offering elementary educational opportunities to the needy millions of our adult population. The American school teacher can bring educational opportunities so tactfully and so invitingly that they will be accepted by the millions who need this chance to enrich their lives.

We do not wish to make this merely another uplift movement where one part of the population tries passively to affect another part of the population, but a real Horace Mann campaign to bring to the American people what their own public schools can give them in the way of opportunities to learn through their own efforts, with the aid of friendly, resourceful teachers. This idea of establishing programs of adult education in the fields of elementary evening schools, secondary evening schools, day schools for employed parents, trade extension classes and university extension courses, is simply using the public school system to its maximum value for our adult population, under the leadership of understanding teachers.

Education of our adults is needed now as never before, for in this machine, mass-production age, the life of the worker must be enriched or, in many cases, his spirit will die. We probably can hold the place we now have by schooling children only, but to make real progress we must educate adults. In times past it was possible for a large part of our population to be illiterate and unskilled and yet lead normal lives, and even prosper, but today these people are the first to be thrown out of employment by the immutable march of progress, and the only way to habilitate them, as we now rehabilitate those injured by war or industry, is through education.

Let us visualize, if we can, the gains to our population by bringing to all the opportunities to get what the secondary schools and colleges have to offer. These schools bring to the race their richest inheritance of literature, science, and history; but for adults these must be given in line with the individuals' needs and not for college degrees, unless the two run in parallel lines.

In a nationwide program for evening schools that ought to occupy at least one evening each week for most normal individuals' lives, we have a program that is worthy of the best effort of this national organization of American teachers. Here is a vital opportunity for educational pioneering which will appeal to venturesome teachers. Here is a field of research where the humble teacher with his group of adults can experiment with various methods and content material and bring advancement that comes in no other way.

Until recently leisure was a possession of the privileged classes. Now some leisure is the lot of the common man. This leisure can be our greatest blessing if rightly used but, if wrongly used, it may destroy civilization. The machine has given us leisure, and only the wise use of this leisure can make men the master of the machine.

In this great program every teacher in America can find a vital place for every bit of talent and imagination which he possesses in the process of enriching human life through a wiser use of leisure time, and to achieve this end the Department of Adult Education invites you to join in working out plans and procedures that will weave new values into the warp and woof of human life.

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION.

THOMAS D. WOOD, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y., *Chairman*

A Committee on Health Problems in Education was created by the National Council of Education during the annual meeting of this Council in San Francisco in July, 1911. This Committee was organized in response to a recommendation of the American Medical Association convening at the same time in July, 1911, in Los Angeles. It was appointed by the late Dr. Charles H. Keyes, President of the National Council of Education at that time, with Dr. Thomas D. Wood as the Chairman of the Committee. At the first meeting of the Committee, December 9, 1911, held in the office of the Chairman, Dr. Thomas D. Wood, at Teachers College, Columbia University, the above title for the Committee was officially adopted.

In the same year, and in sympathy with the organization of the Health Committee of the National Council of Education, the American Medical Association appointed a committee of the Bureau of Health and Public Instruction, of that Association, to study school health problems and to cooperate with the Health Committee of the National Council. Characteristic of the cooperative spirit inherent in and manifested by both of these national organizations, the two committees soon fused into the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education.

During the annual meeting of the National Education Association in Des Moines, July, 1921, the Committee was formally adopted by this organization and became the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association.

Educational and health officials, child welfare organizations, Red Cross members, and other individuals and organizations in our own and in other countries have turned to this committee for leadership and advice relating to standards and literature dealing with important matters of child health and protection.

Since 1912 the following reports have been published:

1. *Country Schoolhouses,* prepared in 1912 by the late Dr. Fletcher B. Dresslar and distributed by the United States Bureau of Education.

2. *The Health Chart Set,* prepared in 1917 by Dr. Thomas D. Wood, comprises 58 charts, each 22 x 28 inches. Nearly 100,000 individual charts have been distributed in our own and in foreign countries.

3. *The Health Chart Report,* prepared in 1917 is now in its third edition. This pamphlet not only serves to illustrate and explain the health charts, but is used extensively for health instruction and also as a guide in making health posters and scrapbooks.

4. *Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools,* prepared in 1915, revised in 1920, established standards which have had a farreaching effect in improving the health conditions of rural schools. $3,000, required for the printing of the first edition of this report (750,000 copies), was provided in a special gift from the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund of Chicago.

5. *Health Essentials for Rural School Children,* prepared in 1916, revised in 1921, has served as a supplementary text in normal schools and as a practical handbook for rural school teachers and supervisors.

6. *The Teacher's Part in Social Hygiene,* published in 1921, revised in 1926, was prepared through the cooperation of the American Social Hygiene Association. The report, together with its splendid bibliography, has supplied excellent material for many teachers.

7. *Daylight in the Schoolroom,* prepared in 1921 by a subcommittee under the chairmanship of Dr. Edward Jackson, contains valuable material dealing with school lighting.

8. *Health Improvement in Rural Schools,* published in 1922, was in the process of preparation for several years. Following considerable painstaking work by well-trained teachers and supervisors, the bulletin was revised and completed through the substantial cooperation of the staff employed by the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund.

9. *Health Service in City Schools of the United States,* published in 1922, contains the results of a survey conducted among 340 leading school superintendents throughout the country.

10. *Ventilation of School Buildings,* published in 1925 through the cooperation of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, and under the chairmanship of Mary E. Murphy, director of this Fund, contains valuable material dealing with this important health topic.

11. *Conserving the Sight of School Children,* published in 1925, revised in 1928, in cooperation with the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, furnishes standards for protecting the eyes and vision of school pupils.

12. *The Deafened School Child,* published in 1928 in cooperation with the American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing, has been used extensively by teachers, supervisors, and health workers as a standard for providing improved conditions for children with defective hearing.

13. *Health Education.*—The most important report prepared by and under the direction of the Joint Health Committee is entitled "Health Education—A Program for Public Schools and Teacher-training Institutions." The first edition of this report was published in 1924 after two years of preparation, with the constructive cooperation of twenty-seven health specialists.

In the six years since this report first appeared, the increasing and continuing demand for it has provided gratifying evidence of its recognition as the outstanding authoritative statement of principles, aims, and general objectives in health education.

Since the first edition of the Health Education Report was prepared and printed in 1924, significant progress has been made in general education, in health education, and in the sciences from which subjectmatter of health education is drawn. It seemed appropriate, therefore, to the Joint Health Committee that this report should be revised and brought uptodate. This decision was made at the annual meeting of the Joint Health Committee in February, 1929. Accordingly a Technical Advisory Committee of fifty specialists was appointed for the revision of the report. The same general plan was followed which had been carried out in the preparation of the first edition, the subcommittees of the Technical Committee preparing or revising special sections of the report. The whole revised and complete report was then submitted to the entire Technical Committee and the Joint Health Committee for approval.

This second edition of the Health Education Report, revised and enlarged by nearly 100 pages, is now presented to the National Education Association, and I move its adoption as an official report of the National Education Association.

The Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association has become an institution. As such it will strive earnestly to be of service in setting standards, clarifying procedures, disseminating knowledge, and conducting research for protecting and conserving the health of school children.

The National Education Association functions through the Department of School Health and Physical Education, in its relation to the work of the Joint Committee on Health.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

ANNIE CARLETON WOODWARD, MEMBER OF BOARD OF DIRECTORS, WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS, SOMERVILLE, MASS., *Chairman*

The Committee on International Relations desires to express to you its feeling that no greater service can be rendered the people of our country today than that which emanates from the work for better understanding among mankind and genuine goodwill toward all.

Our committee, we feel, has made progress during the past year. We have today a larger measure of support for our cause than we have ever had. Who can estimate the amount of goodwill created by the recent visit to our country of Ramsay MacDonald? His visit was not for the favored few. His messages and personality came to us all by means of the press, through the moving pictures, and over the radio. Food for thought has also come from the trip which our statesmen made to England during the London Naval Conference.

Not the least in importance are the values received by the educators of the world who gathered in Geneva last summer for the Third Biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations, which was probably by far the most important meeting ever held by this organization. It was the most truly international. The language problem showed us that. It also made us, as delegates, realize that we must speak at least one foreign language before our next meeting in a foreign country.

To appreciate the Geneva Conference and note its progress over the previous meetings which we have attended, I refer you to the report of the same in the *Addresses and Proceedings* of the National Education Association of 1929. No words could be mentioned, no statement given better than that which was quoted.

Your Committee feels that we need to be better organized through our state education associations for the good work which we should do. For this reason we are encouraging and urging these associations to create in every state organization an international relations committee. We suggest that some of the members of the national committee in each state be among the members of the state committee, thus giving the national committee the benefit of the state's educational work. The state committees would then become:

1. Active throughout their state, pledging speakers for better international understanding on various educational programs
   a. By conducting roundtable conferences in connection with their universal study
   b. By aiding the N. E. A. Committee in securing needed material.

Your Committee has started to collect information for a bibliography to be on file at the Association headquarters, showing the improvement of the condition in the United States for the teaching of better world appreciation. That can be shown: (1) by courses of study that have a world point of view; (2) by proposed changes in various curriculums; and (3) by improved methods of teaching for better world understanding and goodwill.

It is surprising how much work is already being done along this line. It is our aim that with this development our members, through travel and study will gain useful ideas and have the opportunity of rendering a real service through education to our country. As educators we must become the messengers in action, if this Committee is to function as it should.

Next summer the World Federation of Education Associations will meet in the United States. It will be meeting with us for the first time since its organization. We have learned a great deal by our experience during the three great meetings which this organization has had, and we are becoming increasingly better able to solve the problems that confront us.

Our less aggressive helps, or too aggressive or destructive ones, will be aided by the extra work of the constructive ones. Faultfinding seems less noticeable and in its stead we receive suggestions of ideas, plans, and information that have been collected. On the whole I believe that our keenest critic would say that we are improving.

A great many of you now present will, I know, look forward with pleasure to our next summer's meeting. Many happy contacts will be renewed with old friends you have met several times. New faces will come with the group whom you have never seen and as each member would act as a host or hostess in his or her own home we should unite ourselves as a Committee and help our guests. A real responsibility is ours. Every ardent member will want to cooperate. Foreign delegates should have the chance to know how we in the United States are trying to meet our problems in the educational profession.

REPORT OF THE LEGISLATIVE COMMISSION

THOMAS E. FINEGAN, PRESIDENT, EASTMAN TEACHING FILMS, ROCHESTER, N. Y., *Chairman*

Members of the Representative Assembly: This is the first time since the appointment of the Legislative Commission in 1917 that the Chairman of that Commission has not made its report. There have been but two chairmen. I am somewhat gratified this morning to have the privilege of presenting this report.

At the outset, I wish to say, in behalf of the Commission, it is our opinion that the educational workers of the nation owe a debt of gratitude to the two men who have served as chairmen of this Commission. The first Chairman was Dr. George D. Strayer of Teachers College, Columbia University. Dr. Strayer did a piece of pioneering work in directing the activities of the Commission that has resulted in informing the people of the country of the interest of the national government in education, and the need of the Federal Government rendering certain service in this field that cannot be well provided by any other agency. When Dr. Strayer retired from the chairmanship of this Commission, Dr. Wm. M. Davidson was drafted and assumed its burdens. Dr. Davidson put the same zeal, energy, and intelligence into the work of this Commission which is characteristic of his labor in every enterprise with which he became associated. Before accepting this position, Dr. Davidson had the personal assurance from Dr. Strayer of his cordial cooperation. It is due in a large measure to this fine spirit of cooperation of these two influential men, that there is bright prospect today that the great objectives in education sought by this Commission for twelve years may be realized.

Dr. Davidson is not here this morning because of his devotion to the work of this Commission. If Dr. Davidson had not attended a meeting of the President's National Advisory Committee on Education, about two weeks ago, when he was just recovering from an illness, he would undoubtedly be here today. I am happy to announce that in talking with him this morning over the telephone, he assured me that he is rapidly recovering and will soon be in the harness again. So I wish to preface the brief report which I shall offer with a word of appreciation to these two men which I am confident this house of delegates desires to express for the great service which they have rendered American Education by directing the affairs under the jurisdiction of this Commission.

The meeting of the Legislative Commission on Sunday afternoon was one of the largest and most representative meetings which the Commission has ever held, and I am briefly reporting to you the views which were unanimously expressed at that meeting.

It is the judgment of this Commission that the objectives for which this Association has contended since 1917, when this Commission was appointed, are more thoroughly understood by the public and are receiving more enthusiastic support throughout the country today, than at any time during these twelve years of the Commission's existence. The press of the country, many of the great metropolitan journals which have been neutral upon many issues championed by this body, have, during the past year, expressed views favorable to the policies which we have advocated. In this connection it is important to note that the Congressional Records show that more addresses on education have been made, and more bills have been introduced in Congress on the subject of education than at any other session of Congress in the history of the country.

There is another person who is entitled to share in the credit of this happy situation. The information which we have wanted to spread before the public through a campaign of education, and the enlistment of the cooperation of our own forces throughout the country, has been directed in our behalf under the intelligent, skilful, and devoted direction of Miss Charl Williams, Field Secretary and Director of the Legislative Division of the Association at Washington. Full measure of credit is due her for this fine service. Our appreciation should be expressed to her as well as to the two chairmen named, for the accomplishments obtained during these years which have been beset with discouragements as well as promising outlooks.

In my report I am unable to speak with the definiteness which I wish was possible upon the subject under consideration. You know that a little over a year ago the President of the United States appointed a National Advisory Committee on Education. This Committee consists of 52 men and women chosen from all parts of the nation, men and women who represent every phase and division of educational interests in the Republic. The schools and colleges maintained by private foundations, the great tax-supported universities of the country, every division of public school work, the parochial schools of the nation, all these various interests in education have representation on this Committee. The work of the Hoover Advisory Committee represents the first thorough and intelligently conducted effort on the part of the Federal Government to ascertain what educational interests are supported by federal funds, how these funds are expended, and how and by whom these educational enterprises are conducted. It is also the first scientific inquiry made by the Federal Government to ascertain what its relation to education is and what the government's future policy on this subject should be. All the effort which the National Education Association has expended through the work of this committee will prove to be a good investment if the facts and conditions essential to a proper determination of these questions are made available by the President's Advisory Committee.

A committee of 52, for obvious reasons, cannot give detailed direction to its own work. So the Committee has selected a steering committee, or an executive committee. This steering committee is made up of representatives from all these different phases of public, private, and parochial education. So please visualize to yourself, and explain to those whom you represent here, that in Washington there is a group of 52 men and women. The Chairman of this group is one of the wellknown educators of the country, Dr. Charles R. Mann of the American Council on Education; the secretary is our own devoted secretary of the National Education Association, Mr. J. W. Crabtree; and the professional director of the Committee is one of the country's leading philosophers and students of education, former President Henry Suzzallo of the University of Washington.

It should also be understood that one of the great public-spirited citizens of America was so interested in the work of this Committee, so interested in the future welfare of the country itself, that he has made available from his private fortune a fund of $100,000, for the proper conduct of the work of the Committee. Mr. Julius Rosenwald of Chicago, the wellknown merchant and philanthropist paid this fine tribute to the value of education. The Committee, therefore, has the means which has enabled it to employ experts in every field of educational service which will make possible a thorough and scientific inquiry into every problem within its purview. Detailed reports and tables will, in due time, be made available to the public.

Upon your return the Committee hopes that every delegate will explain to the group he represents all the information he is able to obtain on the work of this Advisory Committee. This Committee is striving with all its power to work out a solution of your problems. The Committee needs your support. It merits and should have your confidence. It will, I believe, reach a unanimous agreement on most of the issues under consideration during the year.

The Advisory Committee has its problems. You have heard from this platform this morning reports of several committees which go right into the needs of many aspects of American education. These reports point out clearly some of the vital problems of education demanding immediate consideration from the American people. Our outlying possessions present problems in the education of races other than our own. But there are also problems of racial character within the main boundaries of the Republic, which demand careful and prompt treatment. The obligation of the Federal Government to all of these important issues and problems should be determined. This Advisory Committee is giving them thorough treatment.

Naturally no member of the Commission can express the views of the Advisory Committee. We can only say to you that we know that these men and women are working together in harmony, and that there is no division among them, that they are using every effort possible to come to an amicable and wise agreement upon every question involved in the issues which have been raised since this Legislative Commission of the National Education Association was appointed.

It is the judgment of the Legislative Commission that its report to you this morning should indicate what some of the problems before the Advisory Committee are, and to recommend certain action thereon. The Legislative Commission on Sunday afternoon, therefore, approved a form of resolution, and that resolution has gone to the Committee on Resolutions, and will be reported to this body at a later session.

This resolution will briefly reaffirm the position taken by this body at each annual meeting for twelve consecutive years, on three points. The first of these is that education is not tobe controled nor interferred with in any way whatever by the Federal Government. Education is and shall ever remain a subject to be dealt with by each individual state in the Union.

I am happy to state that in all the discussions before the National Advisory Committee on Education and before all its subcommittees, there has been unanimous agreement upon this proposition. There has been no dissension in any way whatsoever.

The second proposition in the resolution is that there shall be some central Federal authority which shall constitute a great clearinghouse and research organization to deal with these great problems of education and make available to you in your respective fields of labor the facts relating to them. I may say that there is also unanimous agreement on the part of every member of the Committee. Not a dissenting voice has been raised to this proposition.

The third proposition to come before you in this resolution is one approved each year by this body since the Legislative Commission was first appointed in 1917, and this reaffirms our approval of the organization at Washington of a Federal Department of Education, with a Secretary of Education at the head of it, who shall have cabinetorial rank.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

BLANCHE PREBLE, CHICAGO, ILL., *Chairman*

In conformity with its platform of ideals and purposes the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association, assembled in its sixty-eighth annual convention at Columbus, Ohio, adopts the following resolutions:

Appreciation of public support—The National Education Association appreciates the fine attitude of the public toward the schools; the confidence of citizens generally in the leadership of the teaching profession; and the readiness of the people to provide for the continued improvement of educational opportunities for the nation's children. The Association commends the cooperation of newspapers, magazines, press associations, radio, and civic organizations in the interpretation of education.

Equal educational opportunity—The National Education Assocation believes in equal opportunity for every child regardless of residence, capacity, or handicap and that free education through elementary and high school should be within the reach of every boy and girl.

Rural education—The National Education Association, in view of the serious educational emergency that exists in rural areas, urges that the Congress of the United States provide financial aid to the states with which to meet this situation.

Financing the schools—The Association believes that the adequate financing of the schools is a first duty of locality, state, and nation and that tax systems where necessary should be revised to meet this responsibility.

American Education Week—The National Education Assocation urges the continued observance of American Education Week.

Free public libraries—The National Education Association believes that free public library service should be as general as free school service and urges adequate legislation and appropriations for the extension of library opportunities.

Kindergarten—The National Education Association believes that the kindergarten is a farreaching influence for good in the development of the child and favors the extension of kindergarten opportunities to all children.

Hard of hearing children—The National Education Association believes that hard of hearing children should receive the special care that their condition requires, including medical treatment and instruction in lip reading.

Athletics—The National Education Association believes that every child is entitled to an allround physical education. It deplores any commercialization of school and college athletics.

The Eighteenth Amendment—The National Education Association reaffirms its stand in favor of the Eighteenth Amendment and of the laws enacted thereunder. It urges their vigorous and impartial enforcement and pledges its support to an active educational campaign in the schools in behalf of habits of living for which the Eighteenth Amendment stands.

Habit forming drugs—The National Education Association urges all teachers to emphasize the evil effects of alcoholic drinks, tobacco, and other narcotics upon the human organism. The Association condemns the fraudulent advertising of certain manufacturers in their efforts to foster cigaret smoking. It commends for use in the schools selected periodicals which do not carry tobacco advertising.

Child labor—The National Education Association believes that commercialized child labor is economically unsound, unjust to the child, and injurious to the state. It favors an amendment to the federal constitution which will permit the enactment of a national child labor law.

Removal of illiteracy—The National Education Association urges that the campaign for the removal of illiteracy be continued until every adult possesses a knowledge of reading and writing equal to that required of a sixth-grade pupil.

Qualifications for American citizenship—The National Education Association urges that the ability to read and write English understandingly and a general knowledge of the history and principles of United States government be made a qualification for citizenship. It urges that Congress pass legislation requiring proof of this ability by means of a test to be devised by the Commissioner of Education and administered under rules adopted by the Bureau of Naturalization; and that a certificate be issued to any applicant who satisfactorily completes the examination or in lieu thereof produces evidence of having completed a school course covering a period of eight years in the United States and evidence of a willingness to support and defend the Constitution of the United States and to support and defend the nation at need.

Enrichment of human life—The National Education Association commends the work of the National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life. It urges all schools to consider the contribution they can make to the enrichment of life and the wise use of leisure.

Broadcasting channels—The National Education Association believes that legislation should be enacted which will safeguard for the uses of education and government a reasonable share of the radio broadcasting channels of the United States.

Obscene literature, pictures, and tokens—The National Education Association recommends that the Congress of the United States enact legislation prohibiting the transportation in interstate commerce of all such literature, pictures, and tokens as are now denied the privilege of the United States mails.

George Washington Bicentennial—The National Education Association endorses the proposed nationwide observance of the two hundredth anniversary of the birth of George Washington to be held during 1932 and urges all teachers to cooperate with the George Washington Bicentennial Commission created by Congress.

Horace Mann Centennial—The National Education Assocation urges that all schools begin now to make preparations for celebrations of the Horace Mann Centennial in 1937. The Association recommends that state and national organizations build their programs in 1937 around the theme "The Educational Achievements of the Century." It recommends that in the naming of schools consideration be given the pioneer advocate of the common schools—Horace Mann.

Higher standards for teachers—The National Education Association recommends that requirements for beginning teachers be immediately increased in all states. Trained teachers are now available in sufficient numbers to offer an unusual opportunity to reach the goal of four years training beyond the four-year high school, the minimum standard recommended by the Association for all teachers.

Survey of teacher training—The National Education Association urges Congress to appropriate funds for a nationwide survey of teacher training to be made under the direction of the United States Office of Education.

Teacher tenure and retirement—The National Education Association believes that teachers should hold their positions during good behavior and competent service. It urges the passage of tenure and retirement laws in each state based on the principle of justice both to teachers and pupils. Such laws would tend to protect teachers from injustice, to place teachers on a professional basis, to guarantee to competent teachers the benefits of retirement laws, and to secure to teachers reasonable personal and academic freedom; but would not prevent the discharge of teachers for incompetency, immorality, or unprofessional conduct.

Teacher participation—The National Education Association approves the growing practise of school authorities in making provisions for organizations of classroom teachers, officially recognized, through which the special knowledge of this group can be utilized for the improvement of the schools.

National Congress of Parents and Teachers—The National Education Association commends the National Congress of Parents and Teachers for the many helpful services already rendered and assures that organization of its sympathetic cooperation in all efforts to promote a closer relationship between the home and the school.

International understanding—The National Education Association commends the activities of the World Federation of Education Associations and heartily endorses its program for world understanding as outlined in the Biennial Conference at Geneva in 1929. The Association recommends that the Pact of Paris be taught in the schools, and urges the universal observance of International Goodwill Day on May 18, the anniversary of the opening of The Hague Tribunal.

The London Naval Treaties—The National Education Association urges the immediate ratification by the United States Senate of the London Naval Treaties.

Education and the Federal Government—The National Education Association reaffirms its belief that the control and direction of education must be maintained as an independent function of each state. It further believes that public education is a matter of such vital national importance that it is entitled to the scientific leadership and factfinding which have been provided by the government in the fields of agriculture, commerce, and labor. The Association therefore urges the establishment of a department of education with a secretary in the President's cabinet and the efficient integration of the educational activities of the Federal Government in this department.

White House Committees—The National Education Association appreciates the action of President Herbert Hoover and of Secretary Ray Lyman

Wilbur in the appointment of the Advisory Committee on the Relation of the Federal Government to Education; the Committee on the Removal of Illiteracy; and the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. The Association pledges to these committees its hearty cooperation in their efforts to solve the problems submitted to them.

To Columbus—The National Education Association acknowledges the many courtesies and charming hospitality so generously extended by the citizens of Ohio in their beautiful capital. It wishes to thank the good people of the Buckeye state for their cordial invitation for America to discover Columbus. The Association appreciates the cooperation of city and state officials, civic organizations, educational workers, teachers, and children. It wishes to thank the press and radio services of the city for their helpful cooperation and support and to extend its appreciation to all others who have contributed to the success of the sixty-eighth annual convention of the National Education Association.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RETIREMENT ALLOWANCES

ANNA LAURA FORCE, PRINCIPAL, LAKE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, DENVER, COLO., *Chairman*

The report of this committee will be issued as the November, 1930, number of the *Research Bulletin*.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF ONE HUNDRED ON TENURE PROBLEMS

ALBERT LINDSAY ROWLAND, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ELKINS PARK, PA., *Chairman*[1]

To the President and Board of Directors of the National Education Association: I beg leave to submit herewith a brief report of progress for the Committee of One Hundred on Tenure Problems.

During the past year the committee has continued along the lines already laid down, endeavoring to develop objective and scientific studies of tenure as it now operates in various parts of the country in accordance with the policy bequeathed to the committee by the former chairman, Dr. Fred M. Hunter, now chancellor of the University of Denver, Colo. It will be remembered that the Association has gone on record in support of indefinite tenure for teachers and that it has laid down twelve principles in a tentative statement which, perhaps, should control the framing and operation of tenure laws. These principles are:

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[1] In the absence of Mr. Rowland, Secretary Crabtree presented the report.

1. Tenure laws should be devised and administered in the interest of better instruction for children.
2. Tenure laws, should be accompanied by proper legal regulations governing training, certification, remuneration, and retirement allowances.
3. Tenure laws should be devised and administered as a stimulus to better preparation and more efficient service on the part of teachers.
4. Indefinite tenure should be granted only upon evidence of satisfactory preliminary training, successful experience, and professional growth.
5. Indefinite tenure should be provided after successful experience during a probationary period of adequate length, usually two or three years.
6. The right of dismissal should be in the hands of the appointing board.
7. Laws establishing indefinite tenure should provide for the easy dismissal of unsatisfactory or incompetent teachers for clearly demonstrable causes, such as misconduct, incompetence, evident unfitness for teaching, persistent violation or refusal to obey laws, insubordination, neglect of duty, or malfeasance.
8. The proposed dismissal of a teacher on account of incomptence or neglect of duty should be preceded by a warning and specific statement in writing of defects.
9. In cases of proposed dismissal, teachers should be granted right of hearing.
10. Teachers who do not desire to continue in their positions should give reasonable notice in writing of their intention.
11. Suitable provision should be made for teachers already in service in putting tenure laws into operation.
12. Indefinite tenure should be accorded to all classes of certificated school employees on status of teacher, at least.

Following this formulation of principles, the teachers of several states have moved forward in the matter of better security in office. The Indiana Law passed in 1927 has been vigorously attacked but so far remains upon the statute books and the longer it so remains undisturbed the less likely becomes its repeal. In Pennsylvania a somewhat different type of tenure legislation was passed by the 1929 General Assembly of that Commonwealth. This legislation, although not strictly a tenure bill, provided a continuing contract for all teachers in the public school service. In other words, a contract automatically renews itself annually unless specifically terminated by the teacher through resignation or by the school board by formal dismissal. It is the hope of the teachers of Pennsylvania that this legislation, by doing away with the casual omission of teachers' names for the lists of teachers newly elected for the coming year, will produce an acceptance of the principles of continuity of service by the boards of school directors and by the teachers themselves. This law has been in effect for just one year. The automatic renewals of contracts under this law occur for the first time at the close of the present academic year. Your committee is awaiting with much interest the result of this experiment.

The Iowa State Teachers' Association is embarked upon a careful study of teacher tenure laws and needs, with the avowed intention of sponsoring such legislation as may be needed to provide Iowa teachers with adequate protection in office.

In addition to the accumulation of facts relative to the operation of various tenure laws and tenure movements in the several parts of the country, your committee again follows the suggestion of Doctor Hunter in endeavoring to have a series of intensive studies of tenure in typical areas of the country and to present such studies to the membership of the association. Three such studies are definitely in mind, one of which is now completed and will, the committee hopes, be available in printed form during the coming year. This study is that of Dr. Raleigh W. Holmstedt of the University of Indiana. It is a careful analysis of the various factors conditioning and conditioned by the tenure law in the state of New Jersey, the oldest tenure law in the United States; and as a check upon these findings, a similar analysis of conditions in the state of Connecticut where no tenure law exists, and yet where the factors of history, population, industrial developments, educational leadership, etc., are closely comparable. Dr. Holmstedt's study is not only accurate and highly informative, but strongly encouraging to those who sincerely seek a better and stabler status for teachers and through this a finer service for the children of the schools.

The second study is one which, the committee has assurance, may be undertaken through the School of Education of the University of California, setting up a comparison of conditions relative to tenure in the states of California and Washington, the former having a statewide tenure law, the latter lacking such a law.

The third study, the committee hopes, may be projected through the School of Education of the University of Indiana and will provide a comparison of Indiana with another mid-western state where no tenure law is on the statute books.

It is the belief of your committee that these studies will do much to throw light upon the real value of tenure to the teaching profession and will give substantial support to public recognition of the wisdom of providing adequate security in office for the public school teacher. Your committee, therefore, desires at this time, respectfully to report progress and to request that the committee be continued and, if possible, bring to a close the program here laid down.

National Council of Education

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION was organized in 1880, growing out of a paper read by Thomas W. Bicknell before the Department of Superintendence. *See Proceedings*, 1880:90-94. The active membership of the Council consists of 60 members chosen by the Council; 60 chosen by the Board of Directors of the Association; and three chosen by each of the Departments of the Association. For constitution and bylaws, see *Proceedings*, 1906:608-11. The Council meets twice each year, once in February and once in June. The officers of the Council for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Henry Lester Smith, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.; *Vicepresident*, Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, 1506 Arapahoe St., Los Angeles, Calif.; *Secretary*, Adelaide S. Baylor, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*, M. G. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa (Term expires 1931); David A. Ward, Superintendent of Schools, Chester, Pa. (Term expires 1932); Anna Laura Force, Principal, Lake Junior High School, Denver, Colo. (Term expires 1933). Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1880: 90- 94
1882: 77- 87
1884: Pt. 3:1-67
1885: 405-551
1886: 261-331
1887: 257-328
1888: 253-321
1889: 147-440
1890: 289-364
1891: 275-378
1892:745-806
1893:925
1894:593-678
1895:430-509
1896:393-470
1897:317-583
1898:489-588
1899:380-529
1900:297-364
1901:349-499
1902:306-408
1903:301-376
1904:333-377
1905:271-340
1906:607-623
1907:329-454
1908:313-500
1909:331-435
1910:307-375
1911:331-476
1912:499-605
1913:355-424
1914:293-404
1915:527-627
1916:195-287
1917:129-219
1918:135-149
1919:675-739
1920:107-109
1921:269-368
1922:349-574
1923:425-551
1924:350-428
1925:266-336
1926:280-327
1927:247-292
1928:221-262
1929:229-276

SUGGESTIONS RELATIVE TO THE FUNCTIONS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

WILLIAM C. BAGLEY, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

THE COMMITTEE which presents a preliminary report today was appointed as the result of a paper read by the United States Commissioner of Education, William John Cooper, at the Atlanta meeting of the Council. It was Dr. Cooper's suggestion that the Council undertake the formulation of a set of objectives which might be put forth as expressing the ideals of the teaching profession with regard to the ideals that American education should seek to realize. Dr. Cooper recognized clearly that the actual formulation of such objectives should be based upon a very careful study of the complicated problems involved; hence an important part of his proposal was that the Council regard the initial task as a research project which should aim to isolate and interpret the many factors involved.

A meeting of the committee was held in New York during the holidays. Dr. Randall J. Condon, chairman of the committee, was in Europe at the time, and the present writer was asked to serve as acting chairman. It is for this reason that he introduces the present report.

The discussions of the committee led first to some provisional conclusions regarding the functions that the National Council might profitably discharge at the present juncture in the development of American education. Here there was general agreement with the implications of Dr. Cooper's suggestions. In the judgment of the committee, the National Council should concern itself primarily with the larger aims, policies, and programs of American education. It should be primarily a deliberative body, scrutinizing with the utmost care the educational policies and programs proposed by other organizations, especially in the light of their probable influence upon public education. Assuming that in the future such policies and programs will be based increasingly upon the results of careful investigations, it should be the function of the Council, not primarily to undertake specific investigations on its own account, but rather to evaluate critically the interpretations of the data that have been collected in the course of investigations made by individuals or by other organizations, and to determine how far these interpretations are justified and to what degree they may be safely accepted by our profession as a basis for the formulation of policies affecting public education.

We may dwell for a moment on the importance of having an organization officially representing our profession and specifically charged with this function. During the past two decades American education has made remarkable progress in the objective or scientific study of its problems. Actual, accurate, and dependable knowledge of the conditions under which we do our work is very rapidly replacing generalized inferences based on insufficient data, to say nothing of the mere guesswork that has too often masqueraded as actual fact. The area of proved fact is now fairly wide and is rapidly extending. But in our field, as in all fields in which the future welfare of society is the primary consideration, even the most accurately established and thoroughly authenticated facts will not alone solve our problems. They form, it is true, an indispensable foundation, but it is only a foundation upon which a superstructure must be erected. The building of the superstructure involves, first of all, an interpretation of the facts. We must know what they mean in terms of our purposes and ideals. Beyond such interpretations, there must be the formulation of policies and programs.

The recent development of the scientific movement in education is replete with illustrations of this need. We have, for example, the mass of factual evidence that has been assembled regarding individual differences in intelligence. Setting aside for the moment certain inconsistencies in this evidence, many of which are being resolved by further experimentation, undoubtedly the most important question that has confronted education is what to do with the facts now that we have them. In what way should they modify educational practise? A practical policy that seemed quite obviously to follow from the facts was that which goes under the name, "homogenous grouping." It was thought that, if the learners could be grouped in some measure on the basis of similarities in their intelligence scores, many of our problems would be solved. On the whole, the results of such groupings have not proved to be satisfactory. This has been due, in part, to certain misinterpretations of the facts, but one of the most competent students of the problem—Dr. J. R. McGaughy, himself an educational scientist of proved competence—has assured me that the fundamental issue is not at basis a scientific issue, but rather one which involves primarily the fundamental aims and objectives of education.

Again we may cite the very complicated problems growing out of certain facts revealed by the socalled "transfer" experiments. For a quarter of a century, these facts have been used as a basis for discrediting the theory of formal or general discipline and for supporting a policy of specific training. Here we have a rather curious phenomenon. An outstanding ideal of American education has been to have children progress just as far as possible through the elementary and high-school grades. The older doctrine of formal discipline stood squarely in the path of this ideal because the abstract and general training that the doctrine implied caused a heavy mortality in the upper-grade and the high-school classes. Hence we seized upon the apparent results of the transfer experiments as a weapon with which to demolish the disciplinary theory. The demolition has been practically complete, and the theory of specific discipline is now practically supreme in American education. As a matter of fact, however, we seized only upon those findings of the transfer experiments that fitted in with our ideals, and the other findings we quite neglected. As Pedro Orata has recently pointed out, only about ten percent of the experiments show little or no transfer, while more than thirty percent show considerable transfer and about fifty percent show appreciable and presumably significant transfer. Thus ten percent of negative evidence was permitted to overbalance eighty percent of positive evidence. Here we have a striking and probably an unjustified dominance of ideals over facts. But the phenomenon illustrates the point that I have emphasized; namely, that in the last analysis it is the ideals that are both significant and potential.

As a probable sequel to this interesting bit of educational history, I may call attention to the need for another educational objective that is apparently just now looming on the horizon. It is suggested by the rather alarming phenomenon that is called "technological unemployment,"—that is, the unemployment that has come about especially through the rapid development of automatically-controled and power-driven machinery, and through the development of scientific management, the multiplication of mergers, and other factors and forces that enable relatively few workers to produce vastly more than a great many workers could produce a generation ago. This new turn that the Industrial Revolution has taken has already thrown more than two million men and women out of jobs on the routine levels of employment, and it has even affected some of the higher occupational levels. Quite obviously, under these conditions, the theory of specific training needs serious scrutiny. It would seem that an important function of education in the immediate future will be to make the individual as far as possible adaptable to new situations, and this apparently means a reconsideration of the possibilities of a general training. It is interesting to note that at least some of the educational psychologists are now turning their attention to the possibilities of such training that are suggested by the eighty percent of transfer experiments that we have been neglecting.

It would be easy to multiply these illustrations with the very great importance of the interpretation of factual findings in our field and the evaluation of these findings in terms of the larger aims and ideals of American education. Such factual findings are not limited to the results of educational investigation as such. As I pointed out last year at the Cleveland meeting, our profession should not be blind to the facts regarding the prevalence of serious crime in our country, and the increase in crime over a period when serious crime has decreased markedly in practically all other countries with which we would wish to be compared. Then, too, there are the facts regarding the movement of the population toward the cities and away from the farms. Here we have an illustration of an interpretation of factual data which was apparently quite erroneous, an interpretation that our educational leaders pretty generally accepted fifteen years ago. At that time, it seemed to be a general belief in our profession that this movement was largely due to the failure of the rural schools to so train the rural boys and girls that they would remain on the farms. We see now that economic forces far beyond our control were really governing this movement. What would have happened, indeed, if our "back-to-the-farm" educators had had their full way?

Despite the migration cityward there are still hundreds of thousands of farmers who can make only the barest living from cultivating the soil. We could mention, also, the grave problems that are involved in our relation with and our attitude toward other nations, problems that education should consider with the utmost care. There are our serious domestic problems which certainly ought not to be omitted from consideration in the framing of educational policies. The really desperate situation regarding prohibition is a conspicuous example.

I should hasten to add that I have cited these specific illustrations on my own responsibility and not as a part of the official report of the committee. They bear witness, in my judgment, to the very real need for an organization charged with the functions that the committee has suggested for the National Council, an organization devoted to the serious study of and deliberation upon the broader questions of educational policy that affect in a profound way the efficiency and the progress of the nation's schools. It is my idea, and I think it is the idea of the committee as a whole, that the Council will act on these matters as the agent of the National Education Association. As I conceive the duties of the Council, they would be twofold: In the first place, questions of policy would be referred to the Council by the Representative Assembly and the Council would report to the Assembly its findings and recommendations for such action as the Assembly might decide to take. In the second place, on its own initiative the Council would consider educational programs and policies, especially those set forth by other professional and lay groups, and make recommendations to the Assembly with regard to the action, if any, that this body might well take regarding such programs and policies. This would make the Council essentially an advisory body, leaving to the Representative Assembly the full power and responsibility to speak for the profession. All this, I think, is in thorough harmony with the democratic tradition of the National Education Association.

As the first step in the discharge of the proposed functions, the committee recommends that the Council undertake, on a provisional basis, the formulation of fairly definite standards or ideals against which to measure such proposals and policies as come before it for consideration. This task will, in itself, involve work of a research character. The standards and ideals should be acceptable to the profession as a whole, and there are available now certain fairly reliable technics through which representative judgments can be collected and pooled. A start can well be made with a group of provisional standards set up for discussion at the present meeting of the Council. If we find something that we can agree upon, the machinery can be set in motion for getting these before a representative sampling of the profession as a whole for their judgment. With such modifications and refinements as are inevitable in a process of this sort, a fairly helpful formulation is quite predictable. This could then be referred to the Representative Assembly for consideration.

We found at our committee meeting that Dr. C. G. Pearse had been giving more thought to this matter than any other of the members, and it was the decision of the committee that he should present the results of his study and reflection at this meeting.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE QUALITIES OR TRAITS OF A DESIRABLE CITIZEN IN A DEMOCRACY LIKE THE UNITED STATES—ABSTRACT

CARROLL G. PEARSE, REPRESENTATIVE OF F. E. COMPTON CO.,
MILWAUKEE, WIS.

This committee is asked only to set forth as it is able, "the physical and mental qualities, abilities, and knowledge, the social and civic attitudes and ideals, and the personal accomplishments and tastes that should characterize the citizen of this democratic Republic."

These qualities may perhaps be considered under four heads:

1. Physical qualities
2. Mental knowledge and manual skills
3. Vocational qualifications
4. Social qualities.

It goes without saying that without good health the citizen lacks an essential quality. To be the best citizen a man or woman must have good health. We Americans admit the value of strong bodies, but no one seems to do much about it. Our athletics tend generally to develop a few, especially gifted in certain directions. Some plan of physical development is needed that shall, after diagnosis of each young person's special needs, if there be such, build up in all young Americans good lungs, strong hearts and muscles, and steady nerves. The point is to establish a suitable system of exercises much more effective than any now in general use, and then get it into action. Begin to practise it as thoroughly as we now teach reading.

A knowledge of the laws of health cannot be omitted. Somewhere along the line, before the youth's contact with the agreed upon educational agencies is ended, he should acquire a knowledge of the facts of sex and reproduction.

Enough attention to practise and the formation of habits needs to be given in order that the knowledge given shall crystallize into habits. These habits might very well include the practise of some chosen athletic sport and the habit of care to avoid accident and injury—the "safety habit."

Turning from the physical side of the citizen's education, the items of common knowledge, and the common accomplishments that the citizen should have demand attention. Here a knowledge of, and the ability to use the language of the country easily ranks first. So constant is the need to understand the oral or written speech of others, or to make them understand our thoughts and wishes, that the citizen who lacks this ability is not as effective as he should be. Full training in language will include the mastery of such a vocabulary as will make it unnecessary for a speaker to rely largely upon catch phrases and slang. It will give, too, some acquaintance with the field of literature, so that the student may know resources of information and of enjoyment in this field.

A knowledge of numbers and computations sufficient to meet the common needs of life is required. The simpler applications of geometry seem desirable and perhaps the use of the equation and some of the simpler applications of algebra. It seems most important that there be a thorough grounding for accuracy in fundamental processes and good judgment in the application of processes to varying conditions in concrete problems.

The field of geography is boundless. The number of those fundamental facts that every modern person should know and be expected to remember is, relatively, not large. No one can remember all desirable geographical facts, any more than the lawyer can know or remember all the points of law he may need in his practise; but the average person needs for his geography the same habit of looking things up and the same skill in using reference sources and in finding the information he wishes that the lawyer finds necessary.

Each citizen needs a knowledge of the essential facts in the history of his country, of its plan of government, and of the manner in which the government operates. No one can live up to his duty as a citizen if he lacks this knowledge.

Science has so entered into the routine of everyday life that a knowledge of the elements of several sciences may be considered indispensable. Some knowledge of physics and chemistry is involved in the understanding of so many of the common natural phenomena and so many articles of common daily use, and a knowledge of botany and zoology is so important, especially as these sciences relate to the laws of health, that the citizen can hardly be thought of as coming to years of maturity without it.

The universal desire for beauty in form, color, and tone indicates that some steps to satisfy this craving will be included in the preparation of the future citizen. This will no doubt include instruction in art sufficient to ground the youth in the underlying principles to an extent that shall give a fair appreciation of beauty in line and proportion, in harmony of color, and in the concord of sweet sounds which we call music. Such education will result in better types of architecture, interior decorations and furnishings, costumes, and music. It will, too, open up a line of activities that may go far to help solve the question of desirable use of leisure time.

Our citizen requires not only certain knowledge which it has been attempted to sketch, but, to meet life fairly, he must have acquired certain abilities or accomplishments.

Outside of his own observations, no source of information begins to compare in value with that available to him in books. The art of reading easily and understandingly is fundamental. The art of reading aloud is an important accomplishment.

It is constantly necessary in such a society as ours, to inform, to convince, to persuade, or to entertain one's associates or acquaintances, and to do this effectively practise giving acquired ability in arranging and expressing one's thoughts is necessary. Sometimes this expression is oral, the persons addressed are in the presence of the speaker; but sometimes absent persons are to be addressed or records are to be made for preservation; and so the art of setting down the information to be conveyed, or the arguments to be advanced, or the facts to be recorded must be mastered.

The art of penmanship is something no intelligent person can be without. In the training given for acquiring this art the chief aim is legibility. Great progress has been made in the production of writing machines. The use of the typewriter has become all but universal. The use of these machines so greatly increases the ease, rapidity, and legibility of setting down thought on paper that the person who lacks the ability to use one is at a rather serious disadvantage. The citizen with the most effective training for the work of life will be able to use the typewriter with reasonable facility.

The setting down of written or printed characters is not the only means of expressing thought or conveying information. The representative arts—drawing, painting, sculpture, the handicrafts—form a most important medium of expression. Perhaps not all can become skilled in these modes of expression, but all can have an opportunity to develop such talent as each may possess; and in a surprisingly large number of cases opportunity develops unsuspected creative capacity and a high degree of skill in execution. The development of musical talent is equally desirable. The ability to sing or to play some musical instrument provides an admirable avenue of self-expression, and is often of the greatest value in affording agreeable and uplifting employment for leisure time. The development of this talent also affords a means of giving pleasure to others and of making the possessor socially acceptable.

The competent citizen requires a fair degree of skill of the hands. In this twentieth century the temptation is very great to neglect to acquire the skills or to practise the handicrafts which in the more simple organization of society and industry two generations ago, the citizen seldom lacked. Yet today there is as good reason, if a less compelling necessity for cultivating skill of the hand. The modern home is complex and with its equipment offers a wider range for handicrafts than did the simple home of the pioneer. To keep all of this varied modern equipment in repair requires as sure and educated a touch, and a far wider range of both knowledge and skills than were necessary to the grandfather or grandmother of the individual who lives in the modern residence. There is still the opportunity for dainty needlework and the fashioning of many artistic creations for the home or for personal use. The practise of these hand skills serves not only useful, practical ends, but exercises and strengthens the intelligence and judgment and serves to help in solving the constantly increasing leisure problem.

In addition to the hand skills already referred to, each citizen should step out of the preparatory years with some practise in digging in the dirt, and in planting and cultivating the things that grow from it. This is advised for a twofold reason. To work in the soil gives a pleasant and wholesome exercise, while at the same time it exerts a tranquilizing influence and develops an appreciation and liking for simple, natural, and beautiful things. Moreover, with the shortening of the working day and the improvements in transportation, the family with even a modest income may find a home away from the crowded city. The family may thus enjoy wholesome living conditions, with light and air and some chance for the children to run and play, while all the members of the family may, to their great spiritual and financial advantage, help to plant and cultivate their plot of ground. Too, the *paterfamilias* may find himself interested not only to spend more of his early morning hours in his garden, but his home acre may furnish a counter attraction to the pool hall, or to the "club" presided over by the goddess of chance, on his evenings and his Sundays.

One of the great features of American life is the freedom with which the social or industrial "molecule" may move about in the social, the financial, and the industrial mass. The barefoot boy from the farm or the gamin from the back streets of the town is tomorrow's banker or railway president. It seems doubtful if any plan can or ought to be devised, which will invariably fit the coming citizen for the niche in life he is to fill. It does seem that far more progress can be made in that direction than we have so far achieved. The first requirement seems to be that the youth shall have a better chance to know about the various employments and kinds of work available. This will put the youth in a far better position to judge. If, in addition, he can be helped to understand how his personal characteristics and his abilities and perhaps his disabilities or weaknesses are likely to help or to hinder him in different lines of possible activity, he will be at a great advantage.

After a choice has been made, and a vocation decided upon, the youth must find opportunity to prepare for the occupation selected. Already there is offered adequate preparation for the old time professions, for certain lines of commercial employment, and certain mechanical trades and kinds of work. But new occupations and lines of activity are constantly being developed and any adequate system of vocational training must be conducted with an eye alert to perceive these new developments in vocations and quick to move in affording suitable preparation for them.

All that has gone before—adequate physique and habits of life, the fundamental and necessary knowledge and skills, and the selection and preparation for a vocation—are relatively incidental and by the way; they may all be considered as tools through which the citizen is able to function as the most satisfactory and useful unit in the society of his day and generation. For it is to equip the citizen as the best possible member of society that all the necessary educational activities take place. To use aright these capacities in which he has been trained, the citizen must have become possessed of those qualities which we designate as making up good character; and he must perceive and acknowledge certain duties.

The writer would hardly venture the attempt to enumerate all the qualities that go to make up a sound character; on the other hand it seems that something more specific than glittering or philosophical generalities might be attempted: Honesty—recognition of the property rights of others may certainly be expected; truthfulness—that quality which allows associates to depend upon the citizen's word; courage to be able to undertake or to adhere to a right course of action under difficulties or against opposition; industry—to pull his weight in the boat; goodwill towards his associates in society and cooperativeness to enable him to get on comfortably with them; poise—the ability to look facts and conditions in the face and to consider them calmly in studying out the course of action, without becoming uneasy or "fussed"; adaptability—the capacity to meet new conditions successfully. These at least we may confidently expect to find characterizing the model citizen. Even good character is only another tool to bring him better prepared to the perception, acceptance, and discharge of his duties.

Looking at the citizen's duties, and waiving here any discussion of the duties he may owe to the Creator, these duties divide themselves into two groups, the duties which rest upon the citizen as a responsible member of a family, and those which include his obligations as a member of his community and his state. As in the beginning, so now, the duties of the man and of the woman in the household differ: The man as the producing partner is to provide the home, the support, and sustenance for those within it; to be in it, generally, at times when not required to be elsewhere in gaining its support; to defend it if necessary and to help maintain its morale; to bear his share, a substantial one, in the nurture and training of the children. The woman, the buying partner, is to conserve and use wisely the resources brought by the man; to manage the home so as to conserve the health of the family; to preserve her own health and to bear children intelligently; to train the children wisely; to cooperate with her man in maintaining the morale of the home. Both must understand the economics of the home, the apportionment of the income to its various purposes, the necessity for thrift, and the establishment of savings as an anchor to windward.

All the qualities considered up to this point may be looked upon as contributory. Continuing good health; the common knowledge and the skills the citizen needs to make it more likely that he will be a person competent and selfrespecting in the society of his fellows; the vocational preparation that makes him a potential economic asset to the state; the character that will keep him in the practise of right conduct and in a right attitude toward fellow citizens; the acquired knowledge and developed sense of duty that makes him a desirable member and prop of a family; all these add potentially to his value as a citizen. All these, desirable and important as they are, do not alone suffice.

Nations whose governments are conceived and organized like that of the United States are endangered by the corruption, the ignorance, and the indifference of their citizens. Possession of the qualities previously itemized should guarantee the state large immunity from corrupt citizenship, and be a strong defense against ignorance. Intelligence in still another direction and a recognition of an additional list of duties are necessary to round out the picture.

A knowledge of the principles and the operation of his government, local, state, and national, is necessary to the good citizen. There is the necessity, too, for a knowledge of public questions as these come on for discussion and decision, and an understanding of the issues involved. Since this is so, the citizen needs to feel it is his personal duty to inform himself in these matters and upon these issues. The duty lies, also, not only in informing himself personally, but in helping to spread correct information by discussion in private, or, where desirable, in public, so that his neighbors and friends may be as well informed as himself

This duty extends farther. In this land of universal suffrage, the right to vote and thus to share in the government of the state, carries an equal responsibility to exercise that right. The duty to vote cannot be too strongly driven home in the education of the citizen. Too often in primary elections unsuitable candidates are nominated because citizens who are qualified to assist in making wise choices fail to go to the polls. Too often, on election days, the otherwise "good citizen" allows the cares of life or the pursuit of riches or the beckonings of pleasure to keep him from the exercise of this high duty of the citizen.

There is a further duty of the citizen. Some one must attend to the public business; some one must hold public office. Yet too often the otherwise "best citizen" refuses this duty, when called upon by his fellow citizens to become a candidate for the schoolboard or the common council, or to fill a county office or to go as a member of the legislature, or to a state office, or to Congress. Too often the public has occasion to look with dissatisfaction or humiliation upon the holders of some of these offices, who have come to fill them because better qualified or more conscientious citizens have refused the duty. Benjamin Franklin is reported to have stated as his policy in this matter, "I will never seek, I will never refuse, and I will never resign an office." The state will be better served when in some way the education of the future citizen induces in him the acceptance of this principle.

Need I add one more to the duties which the citizen we envision will accept as compeling upon him; that, having accepted a public office, it becomes a public trust, and not, as one of our presidents has phrased it "a private snap." Having once accepted office the citizen becomes the representative, the servant of all the people, not the respresentative merely of his business or social group; not an advocate for the farmers, if he is a farmer, nor for the bankers, if he is a banker, nor for the labor unions, if he is a labor union man, nor for the housewives, if she belongs to that honorable profession; but the representative of all the people of his community, of his state, or of the nation—his duty to see that, whether in his small or his large political unit, "the Republic shall suffer no wrong."

EDUCATION FOR THE AMERICAN YOUTH[1]

MATTHEW WOLL, VICEPRESIDENT, AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

There is nothing that creates such a chasm between persons and groups as differences in educational opportunity. Realizing this fact labor has made equality of educational opportunity a cardinal principle in its program. We have put our faith in a free public school system and have felt a continuing responsibility for seeing to it that public school development squared with ideals of democracy.

We realize that the purpose of our public school system is the education of individuals, hence equal educational opportunity does not mean one pattern for all. We realize that education does not consist simply of memorizing, ability to follow a trade, ability to conform to fixed customs, but that of vastly greater importance is the capacity to find, face, and use facts, to adjust one's self to different persons, situations, and social and economic progress. We want education that helps to develop the dynamic forces of personality and creative intelligence instead of insistence upon petty accuracies and conformities.

Boys and girls go from school into the business of carrying on the duties and activities necessary to maintain and advance our social structure. They should be prepared to do this work so that progress shall be continuous, and this necessitates that they themselves keep on growing through daily work and experiences.

To prepare students properly, there must be a place in our curriculum for the study and understanding of social forces and institutions. Not mere knowledge of what has been, but understanding of what may be ahead, is essential to this period of rapid change. We need reverence for facts, appreciation for specilization, and ability to master these things for service of humanity, and for steadily making life richer for all with ever higher levels of living.

We believe that good workmanship and good living are inseparably associated, and that the curriculum of our public schools should not only help us to become masters of the technics of economic and social life, but should help individuals to develop those elements of character essential to higher intellectual and spiritual development.

In addition to considering the educational development of individuals, our schools should have in mind that boys and girls go out into the world in which associated endeavor prevails in all undertakings. They must go with some understanding of the principles of associated undertakings and how to work with them. To meet life successfully men and women must know how to live and work with other men and women to their mutual advantage.

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[1] In the absence of Mr. Woll this paper was read for him by Warren D. Curry, Business Representative of the Philadelphia Photo-Engraver's Union No. 7.

American labor has always put its faith in voluntary institutions, hence we realize that education is essential to progress. We are keenly interested in the problems of our educational institutions and are willing and eager to share in the responsibility of finding better methods.

We emphasize, of course, a phase of education which concerns us primarily—vocational education. Vocational education draws upon three fields of experience: the experience of the worker, who is doing the specific kind of work to be taught, the needs of industry, which is to employ the students to be trained, and the skill of those who know how to teach truths and facts, together with their relationships to related fields of information.

The fundamental purpose of vocational education is to enable each boy and girl to prepare for congenial work and to be able to live successfully and to keep on growing through the work that is his or her vocation. Vocational education institutions have the responsibility of enabling the individual to have the necessary training and attitude of mind to carry out this purpose.

Unless there is sustained cooperation from the fields of experience that constitute the information by which instruction is guided, vocational education loses its balanced development.

There seems to be a real need for impartial examination of trends in vocational education and an assay of the value of what we are emphasizing, in order that we may plan wisely. We have to have our eyes on two objectives—the development of human capacities and the world's work which workers are to do. We need to know what work is to be done or how it is to be done in order to provide adequate training. The fact that change has been such an important industrial factor suggests that vocational education should develop capacity for meeting new situations—that is, vocational education should be concerned less with physical skills and more with ability to meet changing situations.

Our experience with vocational education has shown us that the divisions between vocational and industrial education and the education not designed for those going into industry, are artificial, and that we need to maintain a greater unity in our whole educational program. It is difficult to discover what trade or calling a girl or boy is best fitted for, so it is well to have vocational training developed with a cultural background in order that there may be avenues of escape should the occupation prove uncongenial.

The popularity of our general continuation schools and our night schools indicate an appreciation of the need for coordinating the work life with social living. Those with greater capacities are looking for new ways of development and opportunities to compensate for early deficiencies. Nor is our vocational education performing its full function when it provides training for the individual. The individual must perform his work and live in the community and successful living implies associated activity.

We look to educational methods as the means through which progress shall come. It is of utmost importance that planning for the educational future shall rest with those whose vision, wisdom, and selflessness shall assure wise planning and decision. The American Federation of Labor stands ready to contribute what it can to this end.

EDUCATION AND THE FIVE YEAR PLAN OF SOVIET RUSSIA

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There are certain institutions and relationships in the revolutionary order of Soviet Russia which have received altogether too little attention in the American press. We have heard much about the Soviets, about the Communist Party, about the professional unions, about the struggle with the Church, and about the efforts to socialize the village. On the other hand, we have heard but little about the system of planning organs and the relationship of that system to the institutions of public education. This system and this relationship are to my mind among the most distinctive features of society in Russia today.

The system of planning organs, insofar as it has been reported in our country, is, I think, misunderstood. The common view seems to be that this system is very simple in structure, and consists for the most part of a state planning commission in Moscow composed of some fifteen or sixteen economists. According to this view, moreover, these economists sit in their chairs and evolve from time to time elaborate plans with regard to the economic development of the country. This picture is far from the truth.

The planning organs of the Soviet Union constitute a vast system which reaches from Moscow to the most remote corners of the Union. There is, to be sure, an All-Union Planning Commission with offices in Moscow. But there is also a Central Planning Commission in each of the republics comprising the Union, a planning commission in each of the great oblasts into which the republic is divided, a planning commission in each okrug, which is a division of the oblast, and even partial planning commissions in the yet smaller political and economic units. Moreover, these various planning commissions sustain intimate relationships with the Soviets, with the cells of the Communist Party, with the professional unions, and with the great economic trusts. Thus it is apparent that the planning organs do constitute a vast and complex system. In its functioning this system seems to work in all of its separate parts. In elaborating the Five Year Plan, moverover, conferences within the different political divisions of the country of representatives of the various planning commissions are continually held. Thus in the development of the Five Year Plan there were held in the year 1928 sixteen All-Union conferences of the planning organs which dealt with various special phases of the plan. There were in addition, of course, innumerable conferences of a less comprehensive character.

This system of planning organs has developed gradually since the October Revolution. The effort at planning the public economy which gave rise to this system has given to the Russian people a unique experience in the field of planning. This experience represents one of the most significant contributions of the Revolution. There are already appearing in Russia bibliographies on planning which include hundreds and hundreds of titles. Although the Soviet system is very different from ours, I am sure that we can learn much from a study of this experience.

Intimately related with the system of planning organs is a system of education which differs radically from the other educational systems of the world. The major point to be noted here is the breadth of the scope of this educational system. It embraces not only schools but also numerous other institutions. It includes the press, the theater, the moving picture, the radio, the library, the bookstore, clubs, young people's organizations, reading rooms, museums, art galleries, and even the army. Moreover, there are two systems of schools embraced by the system: the one composed of nurseries, kindergartens, primary schools, secondary schools, and higher institutions and designed for the coming generation; the other composed of points for the liquidation of illiteracy, Soviet Party schools, Communist universities, and various kinds of short courses providing both special and general education.

In building the new social order this relationship between the planning organs and the educational system is one of very great importance. On the one hand, there are those organs through which the new social order is being planned; on the other, is a vast array of educational institutions through which an effort is being made to realize the plans. What this relationship may mean to the future of Soviet Russia cannot be predicted. It would seem, however, to place in the hands of the Soviet authorities a force which has never existed in any other social order.

The importance of this relationship may be illustrated by the Five Year Plan which was launched in October, 1928. The fact should be observed, however, that this plan represents but one of the achievements of the planning organs. Under the direct inspiration and leadership of Lenin, beginning in 1920 there was developed a program for the electrification of the country. In 1926 there appeared for the first time the socalled controled figures of industry which were designed to guide the planning of the development of public economy during the succeeding year. The planning organs have also worked out a plan for the re-regioning of the country on the basis of the facts of geography, ethnology, and industry.

The Five Year Plan was developed during a period of two and one-half years. In its original form it was stated in two variants. The one was called the minimum variant, the other the optimum variant. They differed not in purpose but rather in terms of the rate of development contemplated. The optimum variant after much debate was approved by the Party and the Government. Thus at the present time the Five Year Plan is identified with this variant which provides for the more rapid industrialization and socialistic reconstruction of the Union.

The provisions of the plan may be divided into three divisions: economic, social, and cultural.

The economic program provides for the expenditure, during the five year period, of approximately sixty-five billions of rubles on construction. This huge sum will be distributed over industry, electrification, transportation, agriculture, and certain minor fields. It calls particularly for the development of heavy industry, chemistry, and electrification. It also makes provision for the reduction of the cost of production and the lowering of prices.

Another important provision of the economic program pertains to the regional distribution of the new enterprises. In the past the industries have centered about Leningrad, Moscow, and the Don basin. Under the plan, the Ural region will become a great center of industry, and the Kuznetsky basin, famous for its enormous coal reserves, will be opened up. Moreover, in the case of agriculture the eastern regions will be greatly developed, and the burden of supplying grain will gradually be shifted eastward.

The social program of the plan has to do with such matters as improvement of the housing conditions, the shortening of the hours of labor, and the provision of social insurance. Perhaps most important of all is the program for the socialistic reconstruction of the village. Under the original planning it was expected that some twenty-seven million hectares of land would be brought under some form of collective management during the five years. According to recent reports from Soviet Russia, this part of the program has gone forward so rapidly that the goal set for the five years has already been passed. Now the expectation is that practically the whole of agriculture devoted to the raising of the grain will be socialized by 1932 or 1933.

The cultural program has also been worked out in great detail. Perhaps the most fundamental element in this program is the provision for the abolition of illiteracy throughout the Union during the five years. The further and rapid extension of practically all forms of education is also contemplated. Particular attention is being given to the development of the press, the moving picture, and the radio. Moreover, the vast program of construction outlined makes necessary the training of an enormous number of specialists. This is regarded as one of the fundamental tasks of the cultural program. During the five years there will be expended for cultural purposes approximately sixteen billion rubles.

The achievement of the plan, which certainly must be regarded as a program of great works, a phrase which the Russians commonly apply to it, is requiring and will continue to require the mobilization of human resources on a vast scale. This process of mobilization may be divided into three divisions: the propagation of the idea, the training of specialists, and the maintenance of the morale. The burden of all of these three tasks falls for the most part upon the educational system. A brief reference to the methods employed in the achievement of each of these tasks will reveal the intimacy of the relationship between the planning organs and the educational system.

The propagation of the idea of the plan and its provisions has been recognized from the first as clearly conditioning the success of the plan. To be sure in the development of the plan large numbers of persons become familiar with it. The planning organs which spread like a network over the Union have from the first been an important agency in the propagating of the idea. In similar fashion the Communist Party, the system of Soviets, the professional unions, and other active agents in the country have made the population familiar with the plan. However, attention should be directed to the efforts that have been made to popularize the plan among the wide masses through the various arms of the educational system.

In the primary school, secondary school, technical school, and university, provision is made everywhere for the study of the Five Year Plan. It is practically impossible for individuals to pass through any one of these institutions without becoming familiar with the provisions of the plan. New textbooks are appearing which deal with the plan and lectures on the plan are being organized in these institutions. To an even greater extent the schools for adults, particularly the Soviet Party Schools and Communist universities, are assuming responsibility for the propagation of the plan. Among the out of school agencies the work is likewise being carried on. The press is issuing almost daily brochures and other publications dealing with the plan as a whole or with its different divisions. Books are appearing to guide the specialists in construction, for the members of the working class, for the parents, for the different nationalities, etc. The newspaper, likewise, is simply filled with materials pertaining to it. Moving pictures describing the plan and its various provisions and outlining its significance for the country are also beginning to appear. The radio is utilized daily in broadcasting facts regarding the plan. Placards in vast numbers dealing with the plan are also appearing and are being distributed to schools, club houses, and other institutions throughout the Union. Special lecturers are being trained and sent out into the more backward areas to propagate the plan. Moreover, the Pioneers, the Young Communists, and the members of the professional unions are all participating actively in this effort to acquaint the masses with the plan. Finally attention should be directed to the Red Army which, as a powerful educational agency, is one of the most vital centers for the study of the provisions of the Five Year Plan. In this effort to acquaint the masses with the vast program of construction outlined, literally no stone is being left unturned. Every agency that can be brought into the service is made to do its part.

The second task pertaining to the mobilization of human resources is that of training the specialists. This task is one of the most crucial, if not the most crucial, of the tasks which must be performed if the Five Year Plan is to be successful. According to the original outline of the plan, the country will require 45,000 new engineers, 1000 new technicians, and 1,000,000 new skilled workers. Because of the rapidity with which the work has gone forward all of these figures have been revised upwards.

In order to train these specialists a burden has been placed upon the vocational and professional schools of Soviet Russia which surpasses anything of the kind in history. The heads of these institutions are literally lying awake nights wrestling with this problem. Old courses are being scrutinized with the greatest of care for the purpose of finding and eliminating non-essentials. New institutions in great numbers are being organized and special courses of many types are being arranged. If the educational institutions of Soviet Russia succeed in this task they will have accomplished one of the greatest educational feats of history.

The task of maintaining morale, courage, and spirit during this period of construction is also a task of the very greatest importance. And in achieving this task very little apparently has been overlooked. The entire program of construction is dramatized and made to appear in the guise of a gigantic struggle with nature, the cultural backwardness of the country, and external and internal enemies of the new order. Military terms are continually used in reporting the progress of construction. The papers constantly employ such phrases as "the war for specialists," "the preparation of millions of warriors for collectivization," and "on the front of construction."

Through the newspapers the progress of this struggle is reported from day to day. So great has become the interest in the program that the newspaper is changing its character, items pertaining to the world revolution and labor troubles in foreign countries have been greatly reduced. At the present time even the more important sections of the front page of "The Pravda" are devoted to the tasks of the Five Year Plan. In these reports an effort seems to be made to report from day to day the progress that is being made. These reports, however, are by no means confined to successes. Today, it would seem, that the failures receive much more attention than the successes. The pages of the newspaper are simply filled with reports to the effect that in this factory or in that agricultural region the program lags. These reports must serve as a very important stimulus for the release of energy for construction.

A word should also be said about the Socialistic competition which has swept the country. Apparently almost all institutions and enterprises have entered into contracts with each other for the purpose of increasing production and eliminating waste. These contracts, which list various items by which the contests are to be judged, are extremely interesting documents. Closely related to the Socialistic competition are the shock brigades on the front of construction. These brigades are composed of the more eager and enthusiastic workers who voluntarily assume unusual responsibilities for the promotion of construction. The tasks which they undertake are most varied in character. The brigade may be merely a group of workers in a particular factory who endeavor to serve as examples of industry in the enterprise. Brigades, however, may engage in undertakings of a much more spectacular character. They may carry on the struggle for the collectivization of agriculture in the villages. They may go into the forests with a view to promoting the lumber industry, or they may go to any point on the structural front where the program is not going well.

Finally, reference should be made to the part that Lenin continues to play in this entire enterprise. He would seem to stand over the Five Year Plan and the other programs of construction that are being formulated as a sort of guardian angel. In defending the plan or any of its provisions the appeal is always to Lenin. In his writings can always be found some quotation which will lend support to any element in the program. And since he undoubtedly occupies a place of real affection in the hearts of the masses of the people, both workers and peasants, this appeal constitutes one of the most powerful forces in enlisting the interests and the energies of the masses.

This account may be closed by a reference to the importance of studying the Soviet experience. While it is altogether too early to pass judgment on the work of the Soviet Planning Organs, we cannot ignore that vast body of experience which the Soviet economists are gaining. If the Five Year Plan is successful and if it is then followed, as it will be, by other plans of a more grandiose character, it is altogether possible that we shall be forced to introduce into our social order some elements of the plan.

THE FUTURE OF EDUCATION IN AMERICA

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One who attempts to foretell what our schools will be a half-century hence is very likely merely to give expression to one's own ideals. Really accurate prediction in any field that touches human affairs is quite out of the question. Relative to the lack of certainty in the mental and social sciences James Truslow Adams recently remarked that the astronomer can predict with absolute certainty where every star in the heavens will be at eleven oclock tonight; but he cannot make the same prediction with any degree of certainty regarding his own daughter. In spite of the progress that has been made in the study of psychology during the past generation, the human mind seems to be about as much of a mystery as ever.

And so, looking fifty years into the future, I should hesitate to prophesy that the riddle will by that time have been solved. The teachers of that distant day will doubtless know much more than we now know about the way in which the processes of learning and thinking go on, but I have a suspicion that their superiority over us will lie not so much in additional knowledge of psychology as in the recognition that many of the alleged facts and assumed laws which we have been taking for granted are really not so. At any rate it seems fairly certain that a sizable area of educational theory that has been based upon the prevailing mechanistic psychology will have to be scrapped.

In spite of this uncertainty, not to say confusion, in the field of psychology, there is some evidence that we are now approaching one of the important turning points of social evolution. These turning points in the past have been closely correlated with the discovery or invention of new or improved methods of communication. The invention of writing has been characterized, quite without exaggeration, as the greatest event in human history. What we call modern civilization began with the development of the printing press in western Europe. The development of contemporary civilization has been closely bound up with the approach to universal literacy that has been made possible by the universal school.

From parallels so close and so consistent as these, one might justly infer that the relationship between improved methods of communication and marked turning points in human progress is not entirely accidental, and that a fundamental law may here be revealed. If this be true, we should expect a great many things to happen within the next few decades, for methods of communication are not being developed that may mean as much to humankind as the invention of writing and the development of the printing press meant in the past. Reference is here made to the movie and the talkie, to the radio and particularly to the possibility of combining the radio and television.

Whether these factors will have a really profound influence upon education remains to be seen. The educational possibilities in the moving picture, while not unimpressive, have been by no means so numerous or so significant as one might have expected in view of the popularity of the movies in the recreational field. The development of the talkies, however, will very greatly increase the educational usefulness of the movies. Within a few years—perhaps in even a shorter time—we may expect a wide range of talking films for school use. To the types of teaching that are essentially expository and demonstrational in character, the talking film would seem to be especially well adapted. The very best teachers in this way may reach millions of pupils and students.

Of even richer promise to education is the combination of radio and television. The radio alone has already proved to be a useful supplement to the regular school work, but like the silent movie its educational posibilities are limited. With the addition of television, however, a much wider field of service will be opened.

It is possible that developments in these fields will work some profound changes in education. One may imagine how schools could conceivably be conducted in the future. At nine oclock, let us say, the teacher tunes in on opening exercises. On the silver screen across the front wall of the classroom appears the moving picture of someone who has specialized in organizing opening exercises for sixth-grade classes. Now he speaks, giving directions as to what the pupils are to do. On occasion there will be songs in which the pupils will join. At other times it is quite likely that the broadcasting teacher will himself have charge of a class, and that what the pupils of this class say and do will be projected upon the screen in thousands of classrooms. There are untold possibilities for the training of teachers in the educational talkie and in the television-radio.

As has been suggested, the great advantage that will come to the schools through these new inventions lies in the fact that the very ablest teachers will be enabled to carry their work to millions of pupils. Unless we are mistaken, some really great teachers will come into a kingdom that has long been denied them. They will be known more widely than individual teachers have ever been known before; and it is fairly predictable that they will be paid as teachers have never before been paid.

What will happen to those who do not qualify as broadcasting teachers? Shall we have in education a repetition of what happened in the theatrical profession when development of the movietone threw thousands of actors and actresses out of work. This will probably not be the case, for children will need someone to look after them even if a good part of the teaching is done from a central station, and it seems incontestable that the basic processes of education will always demand the intimate face-to-face contact of teacher and learner and the sympathetic knowledge of the learner's needs which can be possible only under the condition of direct personal contact.

It is interesting to speculate as to the details of this development. In the first place, how will the various ventures be financed? The educational talkies present no very serious problem here, for talking films can be produced and marketed on a commercial basis just as silent films are now produced and marketed. The radio and the television-radio, however, introduce a more complicated problem. There are, of course, several possibilities. Municipalities, states, or the Federal Government itself may provide the necessary funds; some of the foundations may decide that this is a good use to make of their endowments; or private initiative may provide the broadcasts as practically all radio broadcasts are provided today, namely as vehicles for conveying advertising to the public.

The few efforts that have been made to develop educational radio up to the present time have been financed almost exclusively by private enterprise. The Damrosch broadcasts, which revealed some of the possibilities of educational radio, were promoted by the Radio Corporation of America; the programs of the American School of the Air during the past year have been financed jointly by the Grigsby-Grunow Company and the Columbia Broadcasting System; a Chicago newspaper has furnished local broadcasts for the Chicago schools; a radio manufacturing company has financed the Ohio School of the Air.

There is an advantage in this method of developing educational radio in that it permits competition to operate and competition is a powerful force in promoting progress. Competitive commercial enterprise in the publication of school textbooks has been in part responsible for the fact that the United States has the best textbooks in the world. In the same way, commercial competition in providing school radio programs may conceivably be the best method of refining the technic of educational broadcasting and of otherwise developing the educational possibilities inherent in the radio and in television. It is hardly likely, however, that the development can be carried very far in this way. Effective educational programs are very expensive, and a commercial enterprise that wishes to keep its product before the public can reach a much larger audience and an audience with greater purchasing power by addressing its program to the general public rather than to the schools. The educational radio broadcasts that have been financed by commercial enterprise have been chiefly in the nature of experiments to explore the possibilities, and it is clear enough that, as advertising ventures, the same investment would bring larger returns elsewhere. The Grigsby-Grunow Company, which has financed the American School of the Air, has offered without price to turn over its privileges and its goodwill to the Federal Office of Education, to the National Education Association, or to any other non-commercial agency that will finance its programs. This offer has been made repeatedly but so far with no takers. It seems, then, that educational radio for the present at least must look to commercial enterprise to make school programs financially possible, but how far commercial enterprise may be willing to carry the venture is another question.

It has been maintained by a few schoolmen that radio programs which carry advertising announcements should not be admitted to the schools. The federal law provides that all radio programs must include an announcement of the party or parties responsible for its financing; hence there is no escape from this feature as long as commercial enterprise foots the bills. I have often wondered what the schoolmen who protest against educational radio programs on this ground do with newspapers and magazines in the schools. Of course, the reading matter in newspapers and magazines is made possible by the paid advertisements. It is possible, perhaps, to cut out the advertisements before placing the newspapers and magazines in the school libraries or the classrooms; and similarly it would be possible to tune out the radio just before the advertising feature is announced; but in both cases the strict ethics of such a procedure might be seriously questioned.

I am personally convinced that the serious danger in educational radio financed by commercial enterprises does not lie in the advertising which the programs carry. This advertising is open and aboveboard, and has been so much a part of the development of radio that it is taken for granted. The really serious danger lies not in the open advertising but in the possibilities of hidden propaganda. Schools and colleges are still fairly sensitive because so many of them were caught in the net of the Power Trust; but the evil lay not in the fact that the activities of the Power Trust were directed and financed by commercial enterprise, but rather in the fact that materials and programs intended to mold public opinion in a certain direction masqueraded with apparent innocence in the garb of education. It was not only propaganda but hidden propaganda.

What the schools have a right to insist upon in educational broadcasts is a most careful scrutiny of all continuities by committees that are responsible to the profession. These committees should be in a position to guarantee the accuracy and authenticity of all material sent out over the air and especially should they be in a position to safeguard the schools against propaganda of any sort. If this precaution is taken—and no reputable broadcasting system will undertake to send out programs without such a precaution—I can see no fundamental danger in encouraging such experimentation as private enterprise may be willing to finance, at least pending the assumption of the financial burden by the federal government, the National Education Association, the endowed foundations, or other non-commercial agencies.

There are other possibilities in the immediate future of American education that tempt one into the fields of prophecy and prediction. Beyond reasonable doubt, a most important phase of our professional service in the future will be concerned with adult education. Here, too, the possibilities of the radio are well worth considering. I have been surprised and not a little gratified by the letters written by adults that have come to the Columbia Broadcasting Company relative to the educational programs provided for the schools. Here is one that is fairly typical:

> I am not a child or a teacher; but a new pupil of 89 years of age with eyesight almost gone. By accident I tuned in my radio and heard you. I had said to a friend but an hour previous that I was so tired of cooking schools, beauty parlors, and so much playing and singing, good, bad, and indifferent, that I didn't see why something good and interesting could not come in on the radio, so I welcome your School of the Air.

With the development of television, the possibilities of educational programs for adults will, of course, be greatly increased. I can see no reason why extension courses of various sorts, both cultural and technical, cannot be provided of such quality and in such quantity that, in a quite real sense, a very large proportion of the adult population will be able to continue their education far beyond their school days, at a minimum of expense to themselves, and in almost any field that they may choose.

One cannot look into the future of American education without expressing the hope, at least, that its quality may show constant improvement as its quantity expands both outward and upward. The American people are supporting their schools and colleges with a generosity unprecedented in history and unparalleled elsewhere in the civilized world. Hitherto it has been particularly upon the side of physical plant and equipment that this generosity has been most clearly in evidence. Beautiful buildings, well-furnished libraries, laboratories, machine-shops, gymnasiums, swimming pools, and athletic fields are taken for granted today, not only in the larger cities, but in the smaller communities and even in some cases in the consolidated schools of the open country.

In itself this generosity in providing for the material side of education is not at all to be deplored. Even though it may seem to bring the material side into undue prominence, it is none the less a splendid expression of our American faith in education—and if anything in our national life is idealistic, it is this faith. On the other hand, it is undeniably easy to mistake the shell for the kernel and to conclude that because we have beautiful and well-equipped school buildings, we have good schools.

The primary factor in making a good school is, of course, not the amount of money that goes into the construction of the building nor the provision that is made for its material equipment. The primary factor in the making of a good school is the teacher and his equipment of knowledge and skill and ideal, his insight into the needs and capacities of those who come to him for instruction, his ability to stimulate them to wholesome activity and to guide them aright.

We should not be blind to the fact that, in respect of this basic requirement of a good school, American education still suffers in comparison with other countries. We can, of course, make the excuse that our schools have grown so rapidly, especially on the upper levels, that it has been impossible to provide thoroughly competent teachers in the vast numbers needed. The excuse, in many ways, is a valid one; other countries have been able to develop on the whole a more effective teaching personnel in part because they have not tried to do the educational job on the huge scale that we are attempting. It is obvious, however, that this does not justify us in taking a complacent attitude toward the situation. We cannot justify the upward expansion of mass-education merely by pointing to the increased enrolments of our high schools and colleges. This great movement can be justified only by tangible and unequivocal improvements in the life of the people and in the social order. In order to effect such improvements, it is not the shell of education that is important, but the heart; and the heart of the educative process is the direct and personal contact of the teacher's mind with the mind of the learner. It is this basic fact that makes it altogether likely that the developments in the means of communication, which we have been discussing, will affect education powerfully but not, after all, fundamentally.

One may perhaps venture a few suggestions as to what should happen in our country if our heavy investment in education is to be adjudged a success.

1. Quite obviously now that we are sending more of our young people to high school and college than all other countries combined, we should soon come to surpass all other countries in our contributions to human progress. Within the coming generation, we should expect a greatly increased and a greatly improved output in the fields of science, art, and literature. We should expect an increasing proportion of Americans to merit and receive

such recognitions, for example, as are reflected in the Nobel prize awards. Between 1901 and 1928, of the 119 Nobel prizes awarded in the fields of chemistry, physics, literature, and medicine, five went to Americans as against thirty-one to Germans, seventeen to French scholars and writers, and sixteen to Englishmen and Scotchmen. Such discrepancies we may well hope will be reduced within the coming generation. We should expect, too, such cultural advances as may be measured in a rough way, at least, by an increase in the publication of books *per capita* of the population. Here there has been marked progress within the past ten years, particularly in respect to the more solid publications, but we are still far behind England and France on this count, and still further behind Germany and the Scandinavian countries.

2. We should expect a continuance and (may we suggest?) a humanizing of our present world leadership in finance, commercial enterprise, and industrial organization.

3. We should expect a significant amelioration of social ills of various sorts. It will be unfortunate, indeed, if the most generously schooled people in the world continue to record death rates from accidents that are much higher than those of any comparable nation, even when the automobile deaths are deducted from our rates and the residue then compared with the total rates of other countries. Nor should the most generously schooled people in the world tolerate a rate of infant mortality higher than that of almost any comparable nation.

4 There should be an unmistakable diminution of corruption in public office, a diminution of political hypocrisy, a diminution of religious and racial intolerance.

5. There should be a sharp reduction in our appalling and unparalleled ratios of serious crime. Certainly the most generously schooled people in the world should not continue to report increasing crime ratios when serious crime has been declining in almost every other comparable nation.

6. We should expect not only an increase in wealth but a more equitable distribution of the comforts and amenities of life which a fairly generous economic margin makes possible.

I am not suggesting that our educational system is in any way responsible for whatever weaknesses and inadequacies our national life may reveal. I am not even suggesting that the way to correct these weaknesses is to have the schools make a direct frontal attack upon them. I do contend, however, that because the next generation of American citizens will be easily the most generously schooled generation that the world has ever known, the fundamental worth and value of a generous schooling for the great masses of the people should be clearly revealed in ways such as I have suggested. It is also clear enough that whatever influence our schools may have in bringing about these changes will depend far more upon the quality of the teaching and the character of the teachers than upon all other factors combined. The progressive upgrading of the teaching personnel will be the primary problem of American education during the next few decades. If the progress that has been made in this direction during the decade just ending is an indication of what the near future will record, we need have no fear of the status of our schools and colleges when the centennial of this Council is celebrated fifty years hence.

FIFTY YEARS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION, 1880-1930—ABSTRACT

L. F. ANDERSON, PROFESSOR OF THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

During the first half-century of the existence of the National Council of Education epoch-making changes have occurred. A great war unexampled in magnitude has changed the face of Europe. Most of the monarchies of central and western Europe have been overthrown.

Notable steps have been taken in the direction of the federation of the nations of the world and the establishment of world peace.

In the field of science the discovery of X-rays and of radio-activity has opened a new world for exploration and research. In the understanding of the nature of matter the advances made have been greater than the sum of the advances in all time before.

At the opening of this period the Froebelian movement was well under way. It was essentially a development of the Pestalozzian movement which originated in this country in the first decades of the nineteenth century, and it was itself supplemented by the Herbartian movement which aroused widespread interest, even enthusiasm, in the nineties.

These movements supplemented by the activities of Colonel Parker, Dewey, Thorndike, and others constitute the main feature of the educational history of the period. They have contributed notably to the enrichment of the school program and to the better adjustment of school procedure to the nature of the child, also to the working out of scientific methods of dealing with educational problems.

The period has been marked by an extraordinary extension of the opportunities for securing a liberal education, partly through the multiplication of free, public high schools and partly through marvelous inventions, the phonograph, the moving and talking picture, and the radio, which have enormously increased the range of the cultured influences within the reach of the ordinary individual.

Another important change has been the rapid growth of centers for educational study and research in colleges and universities.

Accelerated progress during the period in the utilization of the forces of nature in the service of man has wrought changes in the aim and content of the school program and has brought to the front the problem of the preparation of the rank and file of the people for the profitable employment of leisure.

STUDY OF TRAITS DESIRABLE IN AN AMERICAN CITIZEN—PRELIMINARY REPORT

CARROLL G. PEARSE, REPRESENTATIVE OF F. E. COMPTON CO., MILWAUKEE, WIS.

I. *Background of study*—At the Philadelphia meeting of the National Council of Education a preliminary report of the Committee on Objectives in Education was presented. At this time the writer, a member of the committee, was requested to continue the study of traits desirable in an American citizen.

II. *Sources of information*—In order to obtain current opinion as to the traits and qualities most desirable in an American citizen, a checklist was prepared by the writer. The checklist requested the selecting and ranking of the three most desirable traits or qualities under these four heads:

1. Physical qualities
2. Knowledge and skills
3. Vocational qualities
4. Social qualities

The blank, reproduced at the end of this report, was sent to all members of the National Council of Education June 9, 1930.

Replies from 50 members were complete enough to be included either in whole, or in part, in the tabulation of findings.

III. *Summary of findings*—The replies to the checklist were widely scattered. With only two exceptions, every trait or quality suggested was ranked either first, second, or third by some respondent. Fourteen additional traits and qualities were added.

The first part of the blank dealt with physical qualities. Table 1 presents in detail the replies to this part of the checklist.

TABLE 1.—PHYSICAL QUALITIES DESIRABLE IN AN AMERICAN CITIZEN

Qualities	Frequency of:			Percent of:		
	First rating	Second rating	Third rating	First rating	Second rating	Third rating
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strong, vital organs: circulatory, respiratory, digestive	19	14	8	38	28	16
Strong nervous system	9	18	9	18	36	18
Health habits	18	3	22	36	10	44
Knowledge of health laws	2	8	2	4	16	4
Skill in and practice of some athletic sport	....	1	4	....	2	8
Strong muscles	....	....	1	....	....	2
Additional qualities mentioned:						
Mentally hygienic in attitude	....	1	....	....	2	....
Muscular control	....	....	1	....	....	2
Good heredity	1	....	....	2	....	....
No quality designated	1	3	3	2	6	6
Totals	50	50	50	100	100	100

According to the Table, "Strong vital organs: circulatory, respiratory, digestive" was rated as the physical quality most desirable in an American citizen by 19, or 38 percent of the 50 individuals replying; 14, or 28 percent more rated this quality second; and 8, or 16 percent gave this quality third place. "Strong vital organs," therefore, was rated among the three most desirable qualities by 41 persons, or 82 percent of those replying.

"Health habits" was given first rating by 18, or 36 percent; second rating by 5, or 10 percent; and third rating by 22, or 44 percent of the replies. A total of 45 individuals, or 90 percent of those replying mentioned this quality among the three physical qualities most desirable in an American citizen.

"Strong nervous system" was rated first by 9, or 18 percent of individuals replying; second by 18, or 36 percent; and third by 9, or 18 percent. A total of 36 individuals, or 72 percent mentioned this quality among the three physical qualities most desirable in an American citizen.

The composite judgment of the fifty Council members replying would name as the three physical qualities most desirable in an American citizen:

1. **Strong vital organs**
2. **Strong nervous system**
3. **Health habits**

The second part of the blank dealt with basic items of knowledge and skill. Table 2 shows the replies on this section.

According to Table 2, "Knowledge of the language of the country; a sufficient vocabulary; the ability to listen understandingly" was rated first by 31, or 62 percent, of the individuals replying. An additional 4 replies, or 6 percent, rated this second; 2, or 4 percent, rated this item third. This item of knowledge was rated among the first three items of knowledge and skills most desirable in an American citizen by 37 individuals, or 74 percent of those replying.

"Knowledge of the field of literature for utility, culture, recreation; skill in the art of finding information sought in books" was given first rating by 4 replies, or 8 percent; second rating by 13, or 26 percent; and third by 6, or 12 percent. This knowledge was rated among the three most desirable knowledges and skills by 23, or 46 percent of those replying.

"Ability to speak effectively and correctly to others—individuals or groups; to read aloud" was given first rating by 7, or 14 percent of those replying; second rating by 6, or 12 percent; and third rating by 4, or 8 percent. A total of 17 individuals, or 34 percent of those replying rated this skill among the three most desirable knowledges and skills in an American citizen.

From the replies summarized in Table 2, one may conclude that the three items of knowledge and skill most desirable in an American citizen are rated as follows:

1. Knowledge of the language of the country; a sufficient vocabulary; the ability to listen understandingly
2. Knowledge of the field of literature for utility, culture, recreation; skill in the art of finding information sought in books
3. Ability to speak effectively and correctly to others—individuals or groups; to read aloud well

Table 3 presents data concerning the third part of the inquiry, the selection and rating of vocational qualities most desirable in an American citizen. "Adequate preparation for the vocation chosen" is given first rating by 27 persons, or 54 percent of those replying; second rating by 8, or 16 percent; and third by 12, or 24 percent. A total of 47 individuals, or 94 percent of those replying, rated this among the three vocational qualities most desirable in an American citizen.

TABLE 2.—KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS DESIRABLE IN AN AMERICAN CITIZEN

Item	Frequency of:			Percent of:		
	First rating	Second rating	Third rating	First rating	Second rating	Third rating
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Knowledge of the language of the country; a sufficient vocabulary; the ability to listen understandingly	31	4	2	62	8	4
Knowledge of the field of literature for utility, culture, recreation; skill in the art of finding information sought in books	4	13	6	8	26	12
Ability to speak effectively and correctly to others — individuals or groups; to read aloud, well	7	6	4	14	12	8
Knowledge of numbers and computations sufficient for the ordinary uses of life	....	5	9	....	10	18
Knowledge of the elements of the useful sciences	2	4	7	4	8	14
Some acquired skill, as a means of self-expression in the representative arts—painting, modeling, drawing; or in singing or in playing some musical instrument	......	3	4	....	6	8
Some developed hand skill—work in wood, sheet-metal or other metal, electric wiring, simple or temporary repairs to heating-plant or plumbing; or in household arts—sewing or embroidery, cookery, laundry work, household sanitation, home management and direction of household help	1	2	3	2	4	6
Ability to write; legibility much more important than beauty or speed	....	4	1	....	8	2
Some acquaintance with the soil, and some experience in planting and culture of growing things	....	1	3	....	2	6
Knowledge of the principles of art, and some judgment of the appropriate and beautiful in form, proportion and color	....	....	3	....	....	6
Knowledge of geography expected and common among intelligent people	....	1	....	....	2	....
Acquaintance with good music, and some appreciation of an ability to enjoy it	....	....	1	....	....	2
No item designated	5	7	7	10	14	14
Totals	50	50	50	100	100	100

"Study of personal qualities as indicative of adaptability for certain vocations" was rated first by 11 persons, or 22 percent of those replying; second by 25, or 50 percent; and third by 7, or 14 percent. This quality was rated among the three most desirable vocational qualities by 43, or 86 percent of those replying.

"Information as to possible employments, vocations, or professions" was rated first by 6 persons, second by 12, and third by 24. A total of 42 individuals, or 84 percent of those replying rated this among the three most desirable vocational qualities.

From the replies summarized in Table 3, the following rating of vocational qualities desirable in an American citizen may be made:

1. Adequate preparation for the vocation chôsen
2. Study of personal qualities as indicative of adaptability for certain vocations
3. Information as to possible employments, vocations or professions

Table 4 gives the replies on the last section of the inquiry blank which was concerned with selection and rating of the three social qualities most desirable in an American citizen.

The replies show very little general agreement as to the three most desirable social qualities. However, after inspecting Table 4, the following rating of the three social qualities most desirable in an American citizen are proposed: (1) Honesty; (2) Home membership; (3) Industry.

However, the margin by which these three traits lead the others in the list is small.

TABLE 3.—VOCATIONAL QUALITIES DESIRABLE IN AN AMERICAN CITIZEN

Qualities	Frequency of:			Percent of:		
	First rating	Second rating	Third rating	First rating	Second rating	Third rating
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adequate preparation for the vocation chosen	27	8	12	54	16	24
Study of personal qualities as indicative of adaptability for certain vocations	11	25	7	22	50	14
Information as to possible employment, vocations, or professions	6	12	24	12	24	48
Additional qualities mentioned:						
Tryout opportunities in a variety of occupations			1			2
Temperament for cheerful labor	1			2		
Correct economic attitudes—e. g. "capital," "saving," etc			1			2
Promptness, perseverance	1			2		
Ability to think		1			2	
Adaptable personality		1			2	
Ambition to do good piece of work			1			2
Right attitudes toward work and industry	1			2		
Experience in sensing and attaining the cultural through vocational effort—the satisfaction and stimulation of having done any job exceptionally well			1			2
No quality designated	3	3	3	6	6	6
Totals	50	50	50	100	100	100

IV. *Conclusions*—The findings in this study cannot be accepted as final. They are presented as an illustration of a method of attack on the problem and of the type of results ordinarily secured from such an attack. The report of this study, together with those summarized in the printed leaflet, "A Review of Certain Studies of Activities, Abilities and Traits of Citizens," will give the National Council a basis for evaluating the present extent of our knowledge concerning those desirable traits in an American citizen which educators should keep in mind.

TABLE 4.—SOCIAL QUALITIES DESIRABLE IN AN AMERICAN CITIZEN

Qualities	Frequency of:			Percent of:		
	First rating	Second rating	Third rating	First rating	Second rating	Third rating
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Honesty	16	5	....	32	10	....
Truthfulness	4	2	1	8	4	2
Honesty and truthfulness[1]	7	1	1	14	2	2
Home membership. The man to provide the income; to be in the home when practicable and help in training the children. The woman to buy wisely; to manage the home so as to preserve the family morale; to preserve her own health and bear children intelligently; to train the children wisely. Both to understand the apportionment of income; the necessity for thrift; the importance of saving when possible	8	5	8	16	10	16
Industry	1	10	10	2	20	20
Courage	....	11	3	....	22	6
Poise	1	....	4	2	....	8
To study and be informed in public questions, and help to inform others	....	....	5	....	....	10
To understand the principles of government and the plan of its operation	....	2	2	....	4	4
Goodwill	1	2	....	2	4	....
To vote at primaries and elections	....	1	2	....	2	4
To consider, when in office, that a public office is a public trust	....	....	2	....	....	4
Additional qualities mentioned:						
Wisdom	1	....	....	2	....	....
Temperance	....	....	1	....	....	2
No quality designated	11	11	11	22	22	22
Totals	50	50	50	100	100	100

[1] Some doubt was expressed as to the possibility of possessing honesty without truthfulness. These cases are reported under the combined quality of honesty and truthfulness.

Checklist of Traits Desirable in an American Citizen

Please read and follow these instructions:

1. Select and rate by numbering 1, 2, 3, in the space provided the three most desirable physical qualities in an American citizen as listed under Section I below. You need not carry your ratidg beyond the three qualities which you deem most desirable.
2. Select and rate in a similar manner the three most desirable items of knowledge and skill as given in Section II, the three most desirable vocational qualities as given in Section III, and the three most desirable social qualities as given in Section IV.
3. Add other important qualities or abilities which you think are desirable in an American Citizen. Space for these additions is provided at the end of each section.
4. Return this checklist at once to: Carroll G. Pearse, Care of National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

SECTION I: Physical Qualities

Place rating numbers below	Qualities
	Strong muscles
	Strong vital organs: circulatory, respiratory, digestive
	Strong nervous system
	Knowledge of health laws
	Health habits
	Skill in and practise of some athletic sport

SECTION II: Knowledge and Skills

	Knowledge of the language of the country; a sufficient vocabulary; the ability to listen understandingly
	Knowledge of the field of literature for utility, culture, recreation; skill in the art of finding information sought in books
	Knowledge of numbers and computations sufficient for the ordinary uses of life
	Knowledge of geography expected and common among intelligent people
	Knowledge of the elements of the useful sciences
	Knowledge of the principles of art, and some judgment of the appropriate and beautiful in form, proportion, and color
	Acquaintance with good music, and some appreciation of and ability to enjoy it
	Ability to speak effectively and correctly to others—individuals or groups; to read aloud, well
	Ability to write; legibility much more important than beauty or speed
	Ability to use the typewriting machine
	Some acquired skill, as a means of self-expression, in the representative arts—painting, modeling, drawing; or in singing or in playing some musical instrument
	Some developed hand skill—work in wood, sheet-metal or other metal, electrical wiring, simple or temporary repairs to heating-plant or plumbing; or in household arts—sewing or embroidery—cookery, laundry work, household sanitation, home management and direction of household help
	Some acquaintance with the soil, and some experience in planting and culture of growing things

SECTION III: Vocational Qualities

	Information as to possible employments, vocations or professions
	Study of personal qualities as indicative of adaptability for certain vocations
	Adequate preparation for the vocation chosen

SECTION IV: Social Qualities

	Honesty
	Truthfulness
	Courage
	Industry
	Goodwill
	Poise
	Home membership. **The man** to provide the income; to be in the home when practicable and help to maintain the morale; to help in training the children. **The woman** to buy wisely; to manage the home so as to preserve the family morale; to preserve her own health and bear children intelligently; to train the children wisely. **Both** to understand the apportionment of income; the necessity for thrift;-the importance of saving when possible.
	To understand the principles of government and the plan of its operation
	To study and be informed in public questions, and help to inform others
	To vote at primaries and elections
	To accept public office when called to do so
	To consider, when in office, that a public office is a public trust

AN APPRECIATION OF THE WORK OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

E. RUTH PYRTLE, PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

I deem it an esteemed honor and privilege to bring to this distinguished group the greetings of the parent organization. May I congratulate you, Mr. President, your officers, and this Council, upon the very able program, prepared for this Columbus convention. Your speakers have made a most valuable contribution to our general theme of the convention, "Vital Values in Education." What could be more vital than the type of discussions set up today by Dr. Condon, Dr. Bagley, and others?

The National Council of Education will continue to point the way for thinking educators. The National Education Association needs the help and guidance of this body. I am sure I speak for the Association when I say that the teaching profession is deeply grateful for the achievements in education aided by the Council in the past, and that we are expecting even greater help in the future. We believe that the Council will continue to emphasize "Vital Values in Education" and will thus feel a new dedication to its program of service to humanity.

We pay tribute on this Anniversary to scores of the finest men and women of America who have poured out their lives in the work of this Council. They have laid the foundations well, but much remains to be done. Progress literally waits on able leaders and loyal followers. There is a part for us all. Our educational progress and the advance of our civilization will depend upon you and me—it will be measured by our energy, our vision, and our loyalty.

THE SPIRIT OF THE OLD GUARD

JOHN W. CARR, DEAN, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MURRAY, KY.

I have before me two lists of names—one list contains the names of the sixty active members of this Council in 1900; the other list contains the names of the one hundred twenty active members in 1930. There are but three names appearing on both lists—William M. Davidson, Carroll G. Pearse and John W. Carr. Such has been the change in membership during the present century.

During the thirty years that I have been a member of this body, I have had the rare privilege of being associated with many of the leaders of American education. When I first became a member, some of the founders of the National Council were still active members, notably, William T. Harris and Emerson E. White. From 1904 to 1911, I was Secretary of the Council and knew all of its members somewhat intimately. These illustrious friends of my younger days, I affectionately designate the "Old Guard."

Among these were Charles W. Eliot, Francis W. Parker, William R. Harper, William H. Maxwell, F. Louis Soldan, Joseph Swain, James M. Greenwood, Oscar T. Corson, Lewis H. Jones, Nathan C. Schaeffer, Charles D. McIver, James E. Russell, Elmer E. Brown, Nicholas Murray Butler, and several others. Doctors Russell, Brown, and Butler and a few others are still with us. The rest have entered upon the life immortal.

I would pay a special tribute to the "Old Guard"—those living as well as those who have gone before. They were men of vision. They foresaw not only the educational greatness of this day but still greater things which are to be. Theirs was a rising and not a setting sun.

They were not only dreamers, but doers. They spoke the language of achievement and their countrymen understood that language and poured out their treasures to make this the greatest educational era in the world's history.

They were scholars and philosophers. They understood not only the education of their own day but they were versed in the education and philosophy of the past and looked to the future with confidence and hope.

They were apostles of democracy. Some of them had known Lincoln personally and all had been imbued with his spirit. They believed in the final triumph of an enlightened democracy not only in their own land, but throughout the whole world.

> "To us from failing hands they throw the torch,
> Be ours to bear it high."

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION—YESTERDAY AND TODAY

CARROLL G. PEARSE, REPRESENTATIVE OF F. E. COMPTON CO.,
MILWAUKEE, WIS.

I very well remember my first Council meeting. It was in 1884, the year of the first great meeting of the National Education Association, at Madison, Wisconsin.

I was a green boy, only a few months out of college, and I did not know that only the elect were expected to attend the Council sessions. I had seen from the program that some of the sessions were scheduled a day or two ahead of the main program and I wanted to get full benefit, so I was there when the doors opened. Somewhat to my chagrin I found I was an interloper; but the great ones were generous and allowed me to remain as a looker on.

At this session informal but very able and definitely pointed discussions were the order of the day. I think Dr. E. E. White of Cincinnati, and White's arithmetics, made the deepest impression on my mind, though there were many others of the great educational figures of the day. As I remember them, issue was joined in the discussions by J. B. Peaslee, Wm. H. Payne, Supt. Seaver of Boston, President Bicknell, of the National Education Association, Francis W. Parker and John Hancock of Ohio, Andrew

J. Rickoff, Aaron Gove, Wm. T. Harris, and E. J. James. It is too long ago for me to be certain, without referring to the record whether all these were at that meeting or whether I saw them at later sessions, but I know that nearly every one named was there—educational leaders of their day.

In those days the number of members was sixty and with few exceptions admittedly the leaders in American education. And the members attended—city and state superintendents, college presidents and professors, educational writers and lecturers. I had occasion in looking up the record of Dr. W. O. Thompson, who was to have been our toastmaster tonight, to review the proceedings of the Detroit meeting in 1901. A committee of the Council was reporting a resolution favoring a National University to be located in the national Capital. Dr. Butler of Columbia was opposing it in a very dextrous way, and President Baker of the University of Colorado defended the resolution so well that the Council approved it. The resolution then went to the annual meeting of active members of the National Education Association. Here Dr. Butler again attempted, in a very suave and skillful way, to prevent favorable action on the resolution. Then came Dr. Thompson. In a speech of a few minutes that went direct to the heart of the question he set the proposition before the Association so plainly that Dr. Butler's move for delay was overwhelmingly voted down, and the resolution adopted.

It was in looking up the record of this incident in which Dr. Thompson played so important a part, that I came upon the fact which I wish to emphasize here. Out of the sixty members of the Council at that time, fifty-three were in attendance at the meeting. It has been a long time since so large a percent of the membership has been present and participating at a meeting of the Council. It raises the question whether acceptance of membership in the Council should not imply recognition of the obligation to attend the sessions and pull a helpful oar.

In the early days of the Council it was the forum in which practically all the leaders in American education presented and defended their theories and proposals. Of late years many other organizations have drawn away smaller or larger groups, each of these usually carrying a number of leaders in the profession. Many of these, interested in these side or partial movements or special fields, have neglected or lost interest in the Council and its work. If all these leaders among the thinkers and doers in American education could not only interest themselves in their special line, but could remember that the Council offers a forum in which all the movements and divisions of American education, both those of organization and those of investigation, may be headed up and kept in touch with the educational public opinion in the nation, and with the membership of the National Education Association, which exercises so large an influence in creating and making effective this public opinion, a far greater number of these educational leaders would, I believe, consider it worth their while, as did their predecessors in the responsibilities of educational leadership in the 80's and the 90's, to take an active interest in the Council and its work.

THE PLACE OF THE COUNCIL IN THE BUSINESS OF EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

THOMAS E. FINEGAN, PRESIDENT, EASTMAN TEACHING FILMS,
ROCHESTER, N. Y.

We are here tonight to commemorate the founding of this organization fifty years ago. This Council was established one year before I taught my first term in a rural school. This Council has, therefore, been one of the sources from which I have gained knowledge and inspiration that has been helpful in whatever educational service it has been my privilege to carry on. Every problem of education before the country during the past fifty years has been under discussion in the meetings of this Council. These discussions have had an important bearing upon the disposition of such problems. It may truthfully be said that this Council has exercised a wise and directing influence upon the progress of American education during the last half century.

Its work is not finished. Many problems in education, vital to the peace, prosperity, and progress of the country are in need of its consideration and helpfulness. It is impossible to consider many of these problems tonight. There is one outstanding need in education at the present time in all parts of the country. I wish to consider it briefly for a few moments. This need is proper financial support. There is much criticism of expenditures for education these days, and yet the progress of the future and the proper solution of many of our social and economic questions depends upon the generous support given the schools and educational institutions of the country.

Our plea for adequate financial support of these institutions must be based upon the service which they render the public. It is the obligation of those who administer education to make clear to the public what this service is. No better evidence of this service can be offered than that found in the Annual Yearbook for 1928, of the U. S. Department of Commerce, prepared under the direction of Herbert Hoover who was at the time Secretary of Commerce.

That report discusses the general prosperity of the country. These results, briefly speaking, are attributed to "education and research." The report specifically states, "Instruction has become much better in quality and especially more practical and conclusive to thinking power and to productive capacity." It is our duty to get the public to see this value in education as clearly as Mr. Hoover sees it.

There has been no decade in our history, in which the demands for and the developments in education are comparable with those of the decade through which we have just passed. This is not peculiar to the business of education. Just as unprecedented changes in the commercial and industrial life of the nation have occurred.

During the past decade the growth and developments in the business interests of the nation have been equal to that of the entire previous century. The increase in the production of such staple articles as coal, steel, petroleum, copper, and aluminum during the past decade has exceeded the increase in the output of these products for the entire nineteenth century. In the great majority of the basic industries of the country, the increase of the value of their products for the decade 1915 to 1925 exceeds their growth in value for the century from 1800 to 1900. During this same marvelous decade the increase in the wealth of the nation has exceeded that of its entire previous history. In commerce, transportation, communication, scientific knowledge, research, and in nearly every field of human endeavor this decade bears witness to the same striking progress over the century.

It is only logical that in a period of such constructive and scientific creation there should be in a democracy a growing multitude among the masses seeking greater opportunities and therefore demanding more general and advanced knowledge than was formerly provided or available. The stability of democratic institutions and the philosophy upon which they rest are dependent upon more general dissemination of scientific learning related to social and economic affairs. The schools and colleges are the agencies which may render this vitally important service to the country.

The practical question, therefore, is how may boards of education meet these modern demands upon the schools? How may they make the schools more serviceable? School boards are to discharge this duty in the same manner that boards of directors of business corporations met a similar problem in the demands thrust upon them for increased service on the part of the business enterprises which were under their management. Many members of school and college boards are also members of boards of directors of industrial corporations. They know how these marvelous achievements of the decade in business affairs were attained.

The directors of business corporations in all their official activities never lose sight of the great objective of the corporation—the service which it is to render. The board is constantly seeking accurate and scientific knowledge about its own business. It ascertains what its competitors are doing. It employs the highest type of technical, professional, and administrative service required by its business. It pays salaries to command this service. It is constantly changing its practises and procedure and modifying its policies and its relations to the public. The ultimate purpose of all these activities and changes is to promote the great objective of the corporation—to render the best possible service in its field of operation, to enlarge and improve its output, to create values, to increase dividends.

Is it a matter of more concern or importance to the nation that her great industrial and commercial enterprises shall be prepared to meet the future needs and demands of the progress and prosperity of the country than it is that the nation shall prepare to meet the future necessities for the education and training of her increased millions of children for service in citizenship?

The business of education is no different in this respect than the business of railroading or the business of steel operations. An educational plant may not be paying the profitable dividends which the stockholders—the taxpayers, desire. An additional expenditure increasing the overhead and thereby the tax burden of the community will in many cases improve the service, justify the expenditure, increase the earning power, produce returns or dividends to the community, and satisfy and please the taxpayers.

THE COUNCIL IN THE NINETIES

JOHN R. KIRK, PRESIDENT EMERITUS AND PROFESSOR OF PSYCHOLOGY, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, KIRKSVILLE, MO.

The Council in the nineties was the clearinghouse of the National Education Association. Its members were aggressive pioneers in an era of increasing complications and change. They were fearless thinkers and versatile scholars. They typified Herbert Spencer's conception of coherent heterogeneity. They dealt with education in all its phases then existing. They were determiners of educational trends in formative stages. They unhesitatingly took the initiative whenever and wherever their well considered ideals pointed the way. No important educational transition occurred without their approval.

The Council in the nineties was far less given to formalities than at the present time. Its investigations were numerous, varied, practical, effective, and fruitful. Its programs had more of spontaneity, more of the voluntary, extemporaneous heart to heart exchange of personal productivities than those of the present time.

The Council in those early years was a deliberative, judicially minded body of men and women, mostly men. There was an attitude of readiness to hear and consider first hand confirmations of whatever the truth, new or old, appeared to be.

One trio most persistently and actively in evidence comprised Dr. William T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, Supt. James M. Greenwood of Kansas City, and Frank A. Fitzpatrick of Leavenworth, Omaha and Boston. Dr. Emerson E. White of Ohio, Supt. Albert G. Lane of Chicago, and Col. Francis W. Parker of Quincy, Massachusetts, and Cook County, Illinois, probably came next in the frequency of their share in the discussions. Inspector James L. Hughes of Toronto participated at least once. Dr. Soldan of St. Louis was in the Council a few times, and Supt. Aaron Gove of Denver voiced his views in brief comments many times.

There was more freedom in expression of individual judgments than at the present time. Hardly any member of the Council leaned on anybody else or waited to hear from any person or group of persons before stating his own views and attitudes.

The period of the nineties was an era of individual activity, cooperation and frank expression of ideas. Creative and constructive ideality characterized the members of the Council far more than at the present time.

There was recently a discussion in a convention at St. Louis between Dr. Judd on the one side and Messrs. Horn and Rugg on the other which in large measure repeated the alignments of the later nineties led by Dr. Harris on the one hand and Col. Parker on the other, Horn and Rugg supporting with variations what President Butler would no doubt regard an adaptation of animal husbandry to education. The St. Louis discussion brought to light nothing that old timers had not heard in the nineties when Drs. Harris and Parker led the contentions.

Much of the formal idealizing of the current decade is repetition of the spontaneities of Council members in the nineties. History may not repeat itself, but educational activity does.

Most of the Council members in the nineties were able to see value in Latin, Greek, and Belles-Lettres, as well as in the sciences. Dr. Harris and others of his type were convinced that knowledge and thinking habits acquired in the study of Latin contributed to the sharpening of insights for other studies. A later group of experimenters undertook to show the failure of studies to transfer. They told us a student succeeded in whatever study he did succeed in regardless of success in any earlier study. It looks, however, as if current trends of thought begin to support again the conclusions of Dr. Harris and the leaders in the Council of the nineties.

Outstanding activities of the Council in the nineties were sometimes led by Dr. B. A. Hinsdale of Michigan; President William R. Harper of Chicago; Dr. Ella Flagg Young of the same city; Joseph Swain of Indiana, California and Pennsylvania; Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Professor of Philosophy in Columbia University; President Eliot of Harvard; Andrew S. Draper of Illinois, Cleveland, and New York; Nathan C. Schaeffer of Pennsylvania; J. H. Phillips of Alabama; John W. Cook of Illinois; Homer Seerley and Henry Sabin of Iowa; Charles A. McMurray of Illinois and Tennessee, probably greatest of all illustrators of elementary teaching procedures in our country; Thomas W. Bicknell, founder of the Council and its first president, who lived a long time in the State of Rhode Island.

But the reviewer must refrain. He knew personally those already named, and some twenty-five or thirty others. At least, he listened eagerly and gave heed to what those constructive idealists and scholars were effectively organizing into operative educational integrations.

Nearly one hundred leaders in American education at times shared in the Council programs of the nineties, though not to exceed a dozen of them seemed to be attending the meetings consecutively during the years to which these brief remarks apply.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Atlantic City Meeting

(Held in Philadelphia, Pa.)

First Session, Saturday Morning, February 22, 1930

The meeting was called to order by the President at 9:30 a. m. in the Ball Room of the Benjamin Franklin Hotel in Philadelphia.

There was an unusually large attendance of the Council members from those representing departments of the National Education Association, as well as others.

All scheduled on the program were present and participated. Papers were read as follows:

MAJOR FUNCTION OF THE COUNCIL IN THE LIGHT OF PRESENT CONDITIONS IN EDUCATION AND THE WORK OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS, W. C. Bagley, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE QUALITIES OR TRAITS OF A DESIRABLE CITIZEN IN A DEMOCRACY LIKE THE UNITED STATES, Carroll G. Pearse, 315 Ludington Avenue, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Dr. Randall J. Condon, Chairman of the Committee on Objectives in Education was also present, and supplemented the paper read by Dr. Bagley, who was Acting Chairman of the Committee in the absence of Dr. Condon in Europe. At the close of Dr. Bagley's address, a motion was carried that the program proposed in his paper be adopted for the future work of the Council.

In supplementing these papers, Dr. Condon stated that Germany emphasized philosophy as basic for education, while America emphasized facts as basic for education, and in his opinion a midway course was needed. He expressed himself as in full accord with the plans set up for the future work of the Council.

In the general discussion that followed, A. Duncan Yocum, State University of Pennsylvania, expressed himself as heartily in sympathy with the proposed work of the committee as set forth in Dr. Bagley's paper, and emphasized the fact that continual readjustment was an outstanding activity of citizens in a democracy.

Others participating in the discussion emphasized the need of a unifying and integrating agency to establish a common philosophy of education for American teachers.

There was some discussion on provision for publicity of the work of the Council, and also the need for special machinery for setting up the work of the Council. It was the concensus of opinion that no special provision was needed for publicity as the National Council of Education was a department of the National Education Association, and the Division of Publications connected with the latter would take care of the affairs of the Council. It was also generally conceded that the Constitution of the Council set forth its relationships to the National Education Association, in provisions so flexible that there would be no special machinery necessary to set up the plans that had been considered during the session.

The President of the Council stated that the Research Division of the National Education Association and similar agencies would be invited to cooperate and asked the President of the National Education Association, who was in attendance, as to the cooperation of the Research Division of the National Education Association. She said that the National Education Association, as she interpreted it, at least under her administration, would be willing to cooperate with the Council and its committees in all possible ways. In fact, the Association was anxious to cooperate in and to use the research work of the Council. The President of the Council further stated that the Board of Directors of the National Education Association had guaranteed funds for the work of the Council.

One of the members suggested that it would be valuable to publish a Yearbook for the Council. To this suggestion Dr. Bagley responded that he felt a Yearbook would necessarily follow from the plans of work for the Council. It should be prepared beforehand and transmitted for study and discussion to the members of the Council, after it had been passed upon by the representative assembly.

A motion was made and seconded that a committee be appointed to formulate questions for discussion at the evening session, or set up a definite method of procedure. It was the concensus of opinion, however, that such action might hamper freedom of discussion, as no committee would be able to formulate questions that might arise from the group. The motion was therefore lost by a vote of 25 to 15.

M. G. Clark of Sioux City, Iowa, emphasized the need of having in the hands of members of the Council for study before the meeting, papers which were to be discussed. This was accepted as a desirable policy to be carried out.

A motion by Dr. Hosic that a committee, of which the President of the Council should be a member, be appointed by the President to report on technical procedure in developing plans for the new work of the Council, was carried. The following were appointed members of the committee: Randall J. Condon, W. C. Bagley, Lotus D. Coffman, Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, and James F. Hosic. To these were added the President, as provided in the motion, and the Secretary. This committee was asked to meet at the close of the session for the purpose of determining some general procedure for the evening meeting and developing plans for future work.

The President of the Council called attention to the 1930 summer meeting of the Council where it was proposed to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of its founding. He presented certain suggestions from members with whom he had been in correspondence as to the nature of the anniversary program. He asked that these be considered and some action taken at a later session.

Second Session, Saturday Afternoon, February 22, 1930

The meeting was called to order by the President at 2 p. m. in the Ball Room of the Benjamin Franklin Hotel.

Preliminary to the opening of the regularly scheduled program, the President of the Council, on request of that body, reported briefly on the interesting personnel and events of the 1930 Geneva Conference. He also summarized the work of the committee of which he was chairman, on Education as an Instrument for Creating World Fellowship. He presented the plan of committee work, in findings and conclusions, and stated that complete reports could be obtained by writing to the Research Department of Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. Augustus O. Thomas, President of the World Federation of Education Associations, supplemented the remarks of the President of the Council on the Geneva Conference.

The committee appointed to consider a plan of technic for the evening meeting and the future work of the Council, decided on the following:

1. In its future work, the Council should sit as a deliberative body to pass upon educational research carried on by other organizations reporting its findings and conclusions to the representative assembly.
2. The Council should carry on sufficient research to establish certain standards against which to check the educational research of other organizations upon which it deliberates.

There would be a discussion of these points at the evening meeting, together with consideration of the program to be observed at the celebration in June, 1930, of the fiftieth anniversary of the organization of the Council. It was further decided by the committee to request that Dr. Hosic, who could not attend the evening meeting, draw up and present the plan of technic he had in mind in making a motion to have such a plan developed.

Third Session, Saturday Evening, February 22, 1930

At the evening meeting there was very little discussion of the content of Dr. Bagley's paper since all were in agreement with the points brought out, i. e., that the future work of the Council should be to judge research already carried out by other organizations and to set up standards against which to check such research.

There was also general agreement with the content of Dr. Pearse's paper, except for one point where he stated that the division of labor in the home, as between husband and wife, should be clear-cut, the work of the former having to do with the production of income, and the work of the latter with the careful consumption of income.

In outlining the future work of the Council, R. C. Deming, Director of the Division of Adult Education, State Board of Education, Hartford, Connecticut, Wil Lou Gray, State Department of Public Instruction, Columbia, South Carolina, and L. R. Alderman, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C., made pleas for the consideration of adult education in any plans to be developed. Mr. Deming spoke especially of the change that would come in a few years in the working time of adults, and the resulting increases in leisure time.

Mr. Alderman emphasized the influence of the parents and the home in the education of children, and stated that we could not really educate children as we would without the education of the parents.

Florence Hale spoke in behalf of the rural people and the movement cityward. She said that their education was not sufficient to make them understand progressive, social movements in the city, and therefore they opposed them. She asked for special consideration of the rural people in any contemplated program for education.

Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey stated that she would like to see a day when every man, woman, boy, and girl might go to any public school to learn what they desired. Mrs. Dorsey believes that there should be help through education for everyone who wants it and needs it. She referred to the work of the junior college and the period following the completion of the high school, when youth needs further leadership. In her opinion, the junior college should be rich in social studies and fill up the gap between the high school and college. She stated that it had been brought out in the discussion that we needed to discover more new facts. In her opinion, there was as great a need or even a greater one for a more tangible interpretation of the facts we already have. She emphasized the necessity for the use of simple, concrete forms, rather than charts and graphs unintelligible to the people. In conclusion, Mrs. Dorsey suggested that we should be doing more things and surveying fewer.

Dr. Condon spoke especially from the angle of the youth and their needs in education, but stated that he did not want to be understood as eliminating the adults.

Dora Schulman, of the Lip-Reading Section, emphasized the need of recognizing the child who is slightly hard of hearing in working out any scheme of education.

In closing the discussion, the following points were made:

1. We must consider which of the various activities can best be taught or developed in the home, and what is left for the school to do.
2. We need an education that prepares more for social life and social contacts. Training is needed for pleasant social relationships. Such relationships are really fundamental to success in any undertaking.
3. There is a big piece of work to do, and we may or may not be able to accomplish it, but will make the attempt.

The President announced further that the next meeting of the Council, if agreeable to that body, would be held in Columbus, Ohio, Saturday, June 28th, and that a program would be arranged to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of the origin of the Council.

Columbus Meeting

First Session, Saturday Morning, June 28, 1930

Randall J. Condon, Chairman of the Committee on Objectives in Education, and formerly Superintendent of City Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio, gave an interesting résumé of outstanding events in the development of the public school program of Ohio.

Carroll G. Pearse, a member of the Committee on Objectives in Education, to whom had been assigned the responsibility of securing reactions from members of the Council and others on a checking list of traits desirable in an American citizen, presented a compilation of returns on the checking list.

A paper was read by W. C. Bagley, Columbia University, on "The Future of Education in the United States."

Among those particiрting in the discussion that followed these papers were, W. O. Thompson, former President of Ohio State University and an honorary member of the Council; Randall J. Condon; Frank M. Underwood; Augustus O. Thomas; R. C. Deming; Willis A. Sutton; and A. E. Winship. In this discussion a question was raised as to the future of adult education and whether in the course of time youth would be so well educated that no further training would be needed, but the consensus of opinion appeared to be that a time would never come when adult education would not be needed.

It was frequently asked during this discussion, whether the school has a function in directing the social order as well as in training for participation in it. And if so, how and to what extent? There were a few who seemed to feel that the school should remain inviolate, but there were many who felt that if a purpose of the school was to extend knowledge, some note must be taken of changes and controversial situations. Emphasis was placed on the teachers as the great agency in securing desired ends in education, and doubt was expressed as to the fitness of young teachers, especially, to handle controversial situations and problems.

Second Session, Saturday Afternoon, June 28, 1930

At the request of the Committee on Objectives in Education, John Dewey, Columbia University, had prepared a series of questions for the special use of the Council in its discussions. These questions had been printed and distributed to members of the Council preliminary to the June meeting. At the request of the Council members, the President read the entire list of questions, and interest was expressed in the discussion of the following:

Point 1, page 2: "How far should the educational process be autonomous and how can it be made such in fact? Is it the duty of the schools to give indoctrination in the economic and political, including nationalistic principles that are current in contemporary society? Should criticism of the existing social order be permitted? If so, in what ways? Can pupils really be educated to take an effective part in social life if all controverted questions are excluded?"

Point 5, page 3: "Can the power of independent and critical thinking, said to be an objective, be attained when the field of thought is restricted by exclusion of whatever relates to controverted social questions? Can 'transfer' of thinking habits be expected when thinking is restricted to technical questions such as arise when this social material is excluded?"

Frank M. Underwood, Assistant Superintendent of City Schools, St. Louis, felt that a fundamental distinction must be made between what is recognized as accepted and what is still in controversy—a distinction between scientific truth and plausible opinion. In his opinion, we do not want youth to question everything. They should recognize a number of things that are worthwhile.

A. W. Castle, State Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, thought it might be well for the Council to go on record as accepting that it was the duty and responsibility of the teacher to consider the weaknesses of the social order, as well as train for participation in it. But it was the opinion of the Council that no action to that effect should be taken at this time.

Augustus O. Thomas defined progress to be that of man exerting control over his environment, and raised a question as to whether we shall hold students down to what we think is right, or give them a chance to build in with the new things. New religion and new philosophy of living are constantly in the building process.

W. O. Thompson stated that we conceive of education as an eternal protest against the present status quo. The public school is a great protest and at the same time a great urge. He feels that freedom of discussion on mooted questions can be productive of good if properly conducted. He cited many changes that have taken place in our ideas of right and wrong, things to be desired and things to be eschewed. He defended the teacher who has not been able to accomplish all the goals set for the schools, by declaring that administrators and society set the environment of teachers, hedge them around, and they cannot help themselves.

Others participating in the discussion of this particular point were R. C. Deming, J. C. Chandler, and John R. Kirk.

On motion of J. C. Chandler, it was voted to have a Committee of five appointed by the President to present a report at the next annual meeting, in which the social function of the school (at the elementary and high school levels), is defined. In other words, to determine how far the school itself can go in the limiting or setting up of its social function.

Frank M. Underwood raised a question as to the extent to which teachers have a voice in setting up the objectives of education. In discussing the situation it was suggested that more than the teachers were needed in determining the objectives of education—the laymen should have something also to say.

Adelaide S. Baylor asked for a discussion of point 4, page 3: "It has been stated from high quarters that the individuality and freedom of the classroom teacher are lessening; that 'the teacher is becoming more and more of a cog in a vast impersonal machine.' How far is this statement correct?" The opinion was divided on this point, and Dr. Bagley suggested that a committee be appointed, or the Research Division of the National Education Association be invited, to investigate the freedom of teachers today.

In the opinion of Melvin G. Clark, Sioux City, Iowa; J. H. Beveridge, Omaha, Nebraska; David A. Ward, Chester, Pennsylvania; Mrs. Edith B. Joynes, Norfolk, Virginia, teachers are freer today than ever before. They are on committees for (1) curriculum building, (2) selection of textbooks, (3) research. They also participate in many ways in the school administrative affairs.

E. W. Butterfield was not so sure that teachers are as free as they were formerly. Topics of prohibition, evolution, and others are tabooed in school, and in divers ways there appear to be limits on this freedom.

Florence Hale felt that if teachers were allowed too free a rein in introducing and dealing with controversial subjects, they would get away from the real objectives of education and lose the confidence of the public. The young teacher is not able to discriminate between freedom and license. In Miss Hale's opinion, a sensible freedom should be maintained. But the members of the Council found it difficult to define "sensible" in this connection, and also "common sense" to which reference was made several times during the discussion.

Third Session, Saturday Evening, June 28, 1930

There were about 125 in attendance at the dinner meeting Saturday evening, most of whom were either active or honorary members of the Council.

Dr. W. O. Thompson, scheduled to preside as toastmaster, found it impossible to remain, and after a brief greeting withdrew, and Henry L. Smith, President of the Council, introduced the speakers of the evening, whose names appear below: E. Ruth Pyrtle, Principal, Bancroft School, Lincoln, Nebr.; J. W. Carr, Murray State Teachers College, Murray, Ky.; Thomas E. Finegan, Eastman Teaching Films, Rochester, N. Y.; John R. Kirk, Kirksville, Mo.; Carroll G. Pearse, Milwaukee, Wis.; Mrs. Josephine Corliss Preston, Burton, Vashon Island, Wash.

Briefs of these addresses, with the exception of the one by Mrs. Preston, appear in the preceding pages of this book.

Fourth Session, Monday Afternoon, June 30, 1930

L. F. Anderson, Professor of History of Education, Ohio State University, presented a paper on "The History of Education in the United States During the Last Fifty Years."

At the request of the Executive Committee, H. L. Smith, President of the Council, presented a paper on "Fifty Years of the National Council of Education," which he had been scheduled earlier to present, but had requested be omitted in order that the time could be utilized in further discussion of the questions set up by Dr. Dewey. Time permittted of both, however, so the Council had the privilege of hearing this paper, to which it was evident much care and attention had been given by the author. This paper is published in a separate pamphlet.

In continuing the discussion of Dr. Dewey's questions, it was brought out that while application could readily be made of many of these questions to higher education, the present consideration would apply for the most part to elementary and high-school education. Boyd H. Bode of Ohio State University was present at this session and took part in the discussion. In his opinion, the theory of neutrality is a fiction. To make education effective, it must do something to the learner and to accomplish this, the teacher should go as far as the situation will warrant.

Public school administrators in the Council leaned to the side of conservatism in dealing with controversial questions, such as labor problems of the open shop and organized labor, for while the school can only progress through some friction, as do other institutions, there comes a point where progression ceases in the turmoil of pronounced opposition. The need for properly informed and wise teachers, who can discuss these questions without partisanship, was stressed.

W. Carson Ryan, Swarthmore College, believed that while it was impossible to keep out controversial problems, that through them youth could be taught to respect the opinion of others, and to realize that their own background was insufficient for much discussion or many conclusions.

Dr. Bagley called attention to the fact that situations giving rise to many controversial questions, especially in politics and war, are still in the formative stage, and it may be a century or more before there is sufficient basis for intelligent discussion. There should therefore be an evaluation of controversial questions on this basis to determine what to consider.

Others participating in this discussion were Joseph H. Saunders, Florence M. Hale, J. M. Gwinn, and Carroll G. Pearse.

The President of the Council read a memorandum concerning the reorganization of the National Council of Education, prepared by Dr. Henry Suzzallo, in response to the question, "How Shall We Reconstruct?"

On motion of Carroll G. Pearse, the Secretary was requested to mail to each member for consideration and discussion at a later meeting, a copy of Dr. Suzzallo's proposed plan for reorganization.

The report of the Committee on membership to supply vacancies in office and membership in the Council was then read by the Secretary of the Council, as Secretary ex officio of the Committee on Membership. This report was unanimously approved and the following declared duly elected:

I. Officers reelected with term expiring in 1933:

Vicepresident: Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, 1506 Arapahoe Street, Los Angeles, California.

Member, Executive Committee: Anna Laura Force, Principal, Lake Junior High School, Denver, Colorado.

Member, Committee on Membership: Carroll G. Pearse, 315 Ludington Avenue, Wauwatosa Branch, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Member, Committee on Membership: Robert H. Wright, President, East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina.

II. Membership

1. Reelected with term expiring in 1936: Cornelia S. Adair, Richmond, Va.; Adelaide S. Baylor, Washington, D. C.; John W. Carr, Murray, Ky.; Will C. Crawford, Honolulu, Hawaii; Agnes Samuelson, Des Moines, Iowa; John W. Abercrombie, Montgomery, Ala.; Wil Lou Gray, Columbia, S. C.; A. B. Meredith, New York City; Willis A. Sutton, Atlanta, Georgia.
2. Elected with term expiring in 1936: Frank N. Freeman, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, to succeed Edwin S. Monroe, Oakland City, Indiana, whose term expired and membership lapsed through absence.
3. Elected with term expiring in 1935: Bess Bacon Goodrich, Assistant Superintendent of City Schools, Des Moines, Iowa, to complete the unexpired term of Frederick E. Farrington, whose membership lapsed through death.
4. Elected with term expiring in 1932: J. C. Wright, Director, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C., to complete the unexpired term of Homer J. Seerley, who was transferred to the active honorary list. E. P. Cubberley, Department of Education, Leland-Stanford University, Leland-Stanford, California, to complete the unexpired term of Edward Bushner, whose membership lapsed through death.

Departments of the Association

The growth of departments in the Association began in 1870 when the American Normal School Association became the Department of Teachers Colleges, and the National Association of School Superintendents became the Department of Superintendence.

Another great forward step was taken in 1921 when departments were given larger independence and responsibility. This led to the establishment of fees by the stronger departments and to the selection of an executive secretary by the Department of Superintendence.

Two new departments were received into the Association this year. They are the Departments of Educational Research and of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics.

There are now nineteen departments. Information regarding their organization may be found in the historical note at the beginning of the section devoted to the department in question.

1.	Adult Education	1921
2.	Business Education	1892
3.	Classroom Teachers	1914
4.	Deans of Women	1918
5.	American Educational Research Association	1930
6.	Elementary School Principals	1921
7.	Kindergarten-Primary Education	1884
8.	Lip Reading	1926
9.	Rural Education	1907
10.	School Health and Physical Education	1894
11.	Science Instruction	1894
12.	Secondary School Principals	1928
13.	Social Studies	1925
14.	Superintendence	1870
15.	Supervisors and Directors of Instruction	1928
16.	Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics	1930
17.	American Association of Teachers Colleges	1925
18.	Visual Instruction	1923
19.	Vocational Education	1875

Department of Adult Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION was established by vote of the Representative Assembly, July 8, 1921, as the Department of Immigrant Education. The first meeting was held in 1922 in Boston. See *Proceedings*, 1922:905. In 1924 the name of the Department was changed to the Department of Adult Education. See *Proceedings*, 1924:566.

The officers of the Department 1930-31 are: *President*, L. R. Alderman, Chief, Service Division, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Director*, Mrs. Elizabeth C. Morriss, Director of Adult Elementary Education, County Court House, Asheville, North Carolina; *Secretary*, Alonzo G. Grace, Assistant Director of Extension Education, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York; *Treasurer*, Agnes Winn, Director, N. E. A. Division of Classroom Service, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*, Katherine Kohler, Director, Extension and Summer Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Frederick A. DeGalan, Director of Evening and Summer Schools, Detroit, Michigan; Robert C. Deming, Supervisor of Adult Education, State Board of Education, Hartford, Connecticut.

This Department meets once a year in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1921:460
1922:905-968
1923:669-703
1924:565-582
1925:337-353
1926:327-371
1927:293-334
1928:263-304
1929:277-316

THE RESEARCH PROGRAM IN ADULT EDUCATION— ABSTRACT

JOHN K. NORTON, DIRECTOR, RESEARCH DIVISION, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

ONE OF THE reasons for which the Research Division exists is to assist committees and departments of the National Education Association in the conduct of investigations and programs of research. The Research Division at present is assisting a number of departments of the Association in the preparation of yearbooks and the carrying forward of studies of various types. The Division can assist in small projects without previous notice. In the case of investigations of considerable scope, however, it is necessary either that an appropriate increase in the budget of the Research Division be made, or else that the department be in a position to finance the work involved.

The adult education movement is one of the most significant in the field of American education. It is not only of great importance in itself but its influence is likely to react upon the education of children in a vital and constructive manner. Investigations in this field are, therefore, of prime importance.

In view of the foregoing considerations the Research Division is ready and anxious to cooperate with the Department of Adult Education in the development of a research program in this field. The development of work in this field under the leadership of the Department would be of outstanding significance to American education.

RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION

W. W. CHARTERS, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

Problems for investigation arise when actual practise fails to meet ideal standards. The ideals of adult education will, in my judgment, be attained when we have schooling for everybody when he needs it. This involves three elements: schooling, everybody, and need. This conception implies the presence of educational agencies which will produce information upon demand. The care of infants will not be studied in the university by young women who have no children but hope to have: the subject will be discussed when the children are born. How to keep well will not be treated merely as a school subject in which students who are entirely healthy now are cautioned about practises which may cause ill health when they are older: health education will be continuous. The high-school student who is going into a vocation will not be crammed with the economics of industry before he understands either economics or industry: these problems will be taken up when he is on the job and begins to see their bearing on the future of himself, his associates, and his family.

When this situation has arrived, it will then be true in a sense which is now only epigrammatically valid that school is life, not a preparation for life. So long as schooling is limited to the days of our youth, it will be loaded with material that is useful, not now, but in prospect. All this load, which is wasteful of effort in carrying, will, under ideal conditions for adult education, be carried over into the future, to be taught at the time when it is needed. If the need does not arise, the material is not taught. If it does arise, instruction is given as needed.

Not only, however, does the element of timely need enter. There is the problem of schooling—the machinery by which this need is to be met for everybody. As soon as we set up the ideal of universal adult education the problems begin to multiply, both in school organization and financial cost. Scores of problems of administration and economics arise to be solved. At the present time these problems are not faced by the elementary and high-school systems, because at present initiative in adult education is largely a private matter. But it is only a question of time until the public school system, including the university, will be weighted with the major responsibility of taking care of education on the adult levels, as it now cares for school education on the lower levels. This is inevitable. The public school system has the technics, the materials, and the equipment. The school plant is used for only a small fraction of its time. It would be a mistake to depend permanently upon parallel agencies, when the present plant of the public school system is not used to anything like its capacity. It is inevitable, therefore, I believe, that the public school system should increasingly take on the problem of adult education. The history of public education in the last few generations is one of expansion, development, and increasing responsibilities.

As the public school takes on this responsibility, it will find a number of problems that need investigation, and of these six may be selected as the most significant.

In my opinion, the problem of greatest significance in the whole field of adult education is a vocabulary problem. What the relation of vocabulary is to adult education can be made clear through the description of a situation which is constantly arising. This is the situation. Ordinarily, a group of people announce to an adult education agency that they would like to have a course on evolution, let us say. The agency looks up the matter, discovers that there are fifteen or twenty people who are willing to sign up for a course and thereby insure its financial support. The agency then looks for a man to teach the course. In this search it discovers the importance of two qualifications. The instructor must be a scholar, and he should be able to make his material simple enough for the class to understand. There is comparatively little difficulty in discovering someone with the scholarship. There are always plenty of people who know a good deal about a subject.

It is fatal, in fact, to select someone who is not a scholar. The troubles begin, however, when the scholar tries to state the valid facts of evolution in language which his audience will understand. He tries to be simple, and he usually believes that he has achieved simplicity. The difficulty in many cases lies in the fact that he does not know how difficult his vocabulary is. He has been using it all his life, and it therefore seems very familiar and simple to him. Not so to the audience, however, in problem cases. The audience, let us say, has gone through the eighth grade in the public school and is now about thirty years of age. The members of the class begin the course with great enthusiasm—they want to know the facts about evolution. Now they are going to get them, because they have secured a scholar who knows all about evolution to be their teacher. When, however, the instruction begins they discover that they do not understand what he is talking about, and shortly many of them begin to lose interest.

In nine cases out of ten the difficulty lies not in the complexity of the ideas which are taught, complex as they are. The fundamental ideas of any important topic are simple in their essentials. Complexity arises when we discuss details. The difficulty rather is with the actual words in which the ideas are expressed. Our scholar expresses his ideas in words which his thirty-year-old eighth grade graduates do not understand. The situation in this case is closely analagous to a foreigner expressing ideas in a foreign language. If he wishes to get the idea across to us he must meet us on our own ground by speaking our own language. So in the field of adult education, it is becoming increasingly apparent that research studies are needed to discover just what vocabulary people with different characteristics possess. Not many adults understand the university dialect. It is quite important to know the vocabulary of the thirty-year-old eighth grade graduate, the twenty-five-year-old high-school graduate, the college graduate, and the like. No such studies have been undertaken on the adult level, although the task is not at all a difficult one. This department, or any other agency interested in adult education, can perform no service quite as significant as such a vocabulary study is. It is possible to take, as a beginning, the Thorndike Word List and by a simple, although somewhat tedious, process of examination discover the words that are known by audiences possessing different traits. The cost of such a study would be so small that it is difficult to understand why someone has not underwritten a program.

When such lists are at hand, the problem of preparing material in adult education becomes much simpler. We first discover the topics which are of interest and of value to specific audiences. We then locate the scholar who can give the information. We ask him to prepare his material, and when he does so we tell him in effect that he must do two things. First, he will select those technical terms which he must teach in order that his audience will have tools with which to think about his subject. These words he will look upon as new words which should be taught, and he should use the technics necessary for teaching new words. Second, we will provide him with a list of words with which his audience is likely to be familiar. We specify that he is, in general, to use no words that are not in this list, and where he does he shall treat them as new words which the audience does not understand. With these specifications the scholar can prepare material which will be accurate and which will be understood by his audiences. Until these vocabulary studies are made, adult education will be groping in the dark. It will have, on the one hand, many bright people interested in topics, and, on the other hand, a mass of information which cannot be understood by these intelligent adults. With the vocabulary studies made, scientific knowledge will be more nearly available to any intelligent person.

The second problem, which I have selected on the basis of importance, is the selection and training of teachers. It can be laid down as a general principle that the public school teacher is not a good salesman. He does not possess the technics of salesmanship, because, in one sense, he does not need them. His customers have to come to his store and buy. They are sent there by their parents at nine oclock and are told to take whatever the teacher-salesman gives them. Consequently, the teacher is not so likely to be an adept in teaching adults, who have to be handled in a quite different way. The adult does not have to come to classes if he does not want to, and he will not want to if he is not interested. Moreover, he is older than the children in the grades and high school, and therefore learns more rapidly. Then, too, his point of view is different.

To my way of thinking, this is a very important area for exploration. The fundamental problem may be stated thus: What are the differences between the technics of teaching in adult education and the technics of teaching children? The discussion method, for instance, is carried on in a quite different way. The teacher in the elementary or high school uses the discussion method partly for quizzing and partly to develop immature ideas. In the adult education field questions are seldom used for quizzing. They are only occasionally used to develop an idea by the teacher. They are almost entirely used for debate and for elaboration of ideas by the students. This is one simple difference; there are scores of them. And all need investigation.

Not only is there a difference in technics, there are problems of teacher personality. The successful teacher of adults must, in a very conspicuous sense, be more interested in his students than in his subjectmatter. He may be able to drone his way through his subject in the high school and in the grades, since the children have to study it, but in dealing with adults, as he should with children, he has to realize that the adult has problems and he has to know what those problems are. With adult groups the teacher is working with the problems of the audience rather than with the principles of his subjectmatter. He is trying to discover what their questions are, why they have asked the questions, and what the meaning of the question is in terms of their background. When he discovers these facts, he artistically uses his materials to help the audience answer its questions and solve its problems.

The technics by which this type of personality is developed have not been collected nor measured. So the field is wide open for investigation. The technics to be used are not highly complicated at present, because the field is new. The first task is that of the collection of technics, to be followed later by evaluation of the methods. A pioneering problem of real benefit lies within this area for someone interested in adult education to undertake.

A third area that needs investigation is related to the tastes and interests of adults. This is practically an unknown field at the present time. The usual method of announcing courses are these. The old standbys which prove popular from year to year are continued. Requests of groups for specific courses are considered and tried experimentally. The program-makers in addition try out some of their own ideas to see whether they will work. So from year to year we find the standard courses continued and a number of trial courses initiated. As time goes on courses become fairly well standardized and stabilized.

All of these technics are good, but we need more of them. There are undoubtedly many courses of great interest and value that are not thought of at present by the director of courses nor by other individuals. How to know about these is the question. Interviews have been used and questionnaires have been issued, yet directors of programs are very much disturbed by their lack of knowledge of what would be the most popular and useful courses that could be offered in their communities. One is struck by the difficulty of this problem in watching the efforts of the Cleveland group to make analyses of the interests of adults in Cleveland. The technics which they are able to discover or invent are not yet adequate to the task, because the information sought for is baffling and obscure. Although they have been working upon the problem for nearly two years, the project has hardly reached a production basis—it is still in the experimental stage. The difficulties which we encounter in Cleveland are symptomatic of the perplexing character of the investigation in this field of discovering the tastes of adults.

The problems of advertising courses need investigation. Not enough people study courses which are already prepared. Those of us who work in adult education are inclined to measure our efficiency by the increase in the number of people who become interested as the years go by. On such a basis there is frequently room for gratification. But if we measure our success by the percentage of the total population who are carrying courses already available—and presumably interesting—there is much less cause for satisfaction. Only a very small percentage of the adults of the United States are engaged in adult education, although probably one hundred percent of them would be benefited by one form of study or another. How, then, to get more people to use the facilities provided in scores of ways, in formal and informal adult education, is a pressing problem. The technics of advertising education are in a primitive condition. They also, like these other areas which I have mentioned, constitute virgin soil for investigation by any one who is interested in securing a fruitful field of investigation for himself.

As a teacher, interested in the technics of teaching, I cannot fail to mention the large area of the mechanics of education. We do not know how long class sessions should be. They run, without reason, from a half hour to two or two and a half hours in length. We do not even know the median or the interquartile range of periods. Then, in addition to this, we have the problem of the number of sessions that a course should continue. Is it better to have courses of six periods, or eight, or ten, or thirty? What is the correlation between mortality and length, or between attendance and length? The size of classes in their relationship to mortality, interest, and learning is a problem that is of primary importance in this field. Is it better to have one class of one hundred or break it up into two sections of fifty or four of twenty-five, if money is not an important question? Can classes be too small? Or is there virtue in having small classes and more intensive and intimate contacts? Such are a few of the typical problems within this area which show the fruitfulness and importance of the field.

I shall conclude by mentioning a constellation of significant administrative problems. I said a few moments ago that the public school system might just as well as not prepare itself for the shifting of much of the responsibility for adult education to its shoulders. It might as well prepare for this, because it will inevitably come. When this happens, many types of problems will arise, but one of the most important of these is a psychological problem. The public school system will have to change its attitude toward education and students. At present the student is minor in importance and must take what the system gives him. The system, therefore, feels that people come to it. It does not have, as strongly as it should have, the spirit of service to the community. It is reasonably well satisfied with what it is doing. There is a tendency toward self-satisfaction.

The causes for this attitude are not hard to discover. Children do not know very well what they need to know. The public school experts have been searching for generations for the best information to give students, and the information that they deal with consists of fundamentals which everybody should learn.

The situation changes in adult education. The public school system cannot be so sure of itself. The adult is now as mature as is the official of the public school system. The adult knows what he wants as well as or better than the official knows. But the trouble is going to arise from the fact that the official has been so used to telling children what they should study that he will carry this habit over into adult education. He is likely to have an official, bureaucratic attitude of superiority, in which he thinks that because he knows the machinery better than the adult he is equally superior in determining the uses to which the machinery should be put.

The most serious danger of the future, in the days when the schools take over adult education, is the danger of institutionalizing it, of standardizing it, and of emasculating the interests of adults. Inevitably the time will come when any person can get information upon any subject from central agencies. The speed with which that time will come and the efficiency with which the operations are carried on will depend upon the degree to which the public schools exhibit a scientific attitude toward the problem. If the schools take the research attitude, try their best to overcome their present paternalistic attitude toward children when they come to deal with adults, and will realize that they are faced with a new set of problems, the development of the machinery of adult education will proceed with great rapidity.

In conclusion, therefore, I may say that there are six major areas in which research needs to be carried on. The vocabularies that are understood by adults of different traits need to be known and used. The selection and training of teachers is an important factor in the program of adult education. The percentage of our population that are carrying courses now open to them is altogether too small. The learning tastes of adults need to be located and classified. The mechanics of the classroom have to be studied. And the public school system needs to discover methods by which it can take on the responsibilities of adult education without killing the interest and vitality which it now possesses under private sponsorship and enthusiastic leadership.

SOME OF THE OBJECTIVE VALUES RESULTING FROM A PROGRAM OF ADULT ELEMENTARY EDUCATION TO THE ADULT STUDENT, TO THE DAY SCHOOL PROGRAM AND TO THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD—ABSTRACT[1]

MRS. ELIZABETH MORRISS, DIRECTOR, ADULT ELEMENTARY EDUCATION,
BUNCOMBE COUNTY, N. C.

Need for making the study—The goal of an assured and an unquestioned place in the public school system with adequate support provided by legislators has not yet been reached by the program of adult elementary education. Experienced workers believe that this goal will be more quickly and more surely attained when authentic data replace the vague, general claims often made as to the benefits resulting from this program to adult elementary students.

Vague, general, and, occasionally, absurd claims have resulted in criticisms from thoughtful educational officials. Business men and women have not been impressed by them.

Yet the problem itself is of real and increasing interest in all parts of the country. Inquirers, especially into the problems of native illiterate adults, find a disconcerting scarcity of authentic reference material available.

There is an urgent need for making a beginning somewhere to enable workers in this field to answer inquiries as to the authenticity of their claims with the reply: "We know because we have the facts relative to the situation and have reached a solution of the problem through actual practical experience in scientifically dealing with the facts."

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[1] A Service Study undertaken by the Director of Adult Elementary Education and the Whole-Time Workers in Buncombe County, North Carolina, in the school year 1929-1930, as an accredited course of the State University Extension Department, Dr. R. W. Morrison, Instructor.

The point of beginning the collection of authentic data in Buncombe County, North Carolina, was determined by two practical needs:

1. Additional information essential for the development of the new ten-year county program of adult elementary education.
2. Authentic material to use in legislative hearings on a bill for an adequate appropriation for a statewide program of adult elementary education in North Carolina.

Methods, procedures, and difficulties—Since the amount of time available for professional study was limited and since there was need for use of the results of the different phases of the study as they developed, it seemed more practical to undertake a service study rather than a research study. In becoming familiar with the methods of attacking service problems, the group felt that they would have the key to the solution of all their problems, no matter how much they might differ in kind.

In planning the service study[1] there are three major steps

1. Define the actual problem in terms of data that can be readily obtained (things to be collected).
2. Determine where the data may be found (reliable sources, close at hand).
3. Write down the data desired, the sources selected, and the methods by which the data can best be obtained from the sources.

The three major steps involve six different elements that are present in any service study, In this study they are as follows:

I. *Major problem*

To collect some objective values resulting from a program of adult elementary education to the adult student, to the day school program, and to the preschool child.

A. Sub-problem:

   1. To develop a working technic for this investigation as no similar study has been made in this field.
   2. To assemble reports of school surveys of social-educational-economic conditions and such other professional literature as may suggest methods of conducting the study or may contain findings applicable to the local situation.
   3. To make an approved list of direct and of concomitant values, to the illiterate group, resulting from a program of adult elementary education.
      a. To make a detailed list, based on observation, of probable values, direct and concomitant, to the illiterate group.

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[1] See "Investigations in Teaching" by Douglas Waples.

b. To decide which values are direct and which concomitant.

c. To decide how many of the values, under each grouping, can be investigated in the time available.

d. To submit the lists, for checking of the most valuable under each grouping, to the county and city superintendents of education, members of the county and city boards of education, chairman of county and city commissioners, six principals, six teachers, six night school graduates, superintendent of public welfare, county health department, secretary of associated charities, secretary Red Cross chapter, a doctor, a minister, a lawyer, a merchant, a banker, a senator, two representatives of state legislature, four members of official volunteer department, presidents of representative local civic, social, and patriotic organizations; also to specialists in adult education of the U. S. Office of Education, president Department of Adult Education, N. E. A., president general and state federations of women's clubs, chairman of national and state literacy committees, president of national and state literacy commissions, director extension department of state university and of North Carolina College for Women, presidents of Eastern Carolina Teachers College, Western Carolina Teachers College, Appalachian Teachers College (Boone).

4. To decide, according to the evaluations by officials, evaluations by supervisor of adult elementary education program, and by university extension instructor, together with the time available, which values shall be objectively checked.
5. To apportion the logical duties and responsibilities of the members of the investigating group.
6. To select the schools and homes in which data are to be collected.
7. To make first-hand investigations in homes, schools, and communities of values on approved list.
8. To organize the findings of the study with regard to the use to be made of them.

II. *Data desired*

A. A clearer knowledge of the background of the adult illiterate group.

B. Extent to which the knowledge gained in reading, writing, and arithmetic functions in the everyday living of adult elementary students.

C. Extent to which these students, through their new learnings, develop higher standards in health, proper food, thrift, education, cooperation, and citizenship as shown objectively in their everyday living.

D. Extent to which this development of higher standards affects the home environment of their children and the day school program.

III. *Assumptions*

A. That certain definite values for the members of the illiterate group have been the objectives of the program of adult elementary education throughout a ten-year program.

B. That these objectives are valid as checked against the needs of the groups concerned.

C. That definite means for attaining the most immediately needed objectives have been planned and used each year.

D. That checks on the results have been planned for and observed each year but not systematically recorded.

E. That, based on these first-hand observations, a list of probable values for systematic checking and recording may be made.
F. That certain concomitant outcomes of value to the illiterate group have resulted from working toward the specific objectives.
G. That some of these benefits, direct and concomitant, can be objectively checked.
H. That data collected in six standard day schools and in 100 homes will furnish an adequate basis of investigation.
I. That the opinions of educational and health officials, welfare officer, cooperating organizations, members of official volunteer department, doctors, bankers, and interested neighbors will be helpful factors in evaluating the results.
J. That measuring these values in a group still illiterate will be a sufficient check on the operation of other factors independent of the adult elementary program in securing these benefits to that illiterate group.
K. That authentic professional literature in other fields will be helpful in developing a working technic for this study.
L. That the records of day schools, welfare and health departments are sufficiently accurate for our investigation.

IV. *Sources* (Selection based on primacy, reliability and availability)

A. 100 or more students in adult elementary schools.
B. Experts in adult elementary education.
C. County superintendent and supervisors, principals, teachers, pupils and patrons of six large day schools.
D. Superintendent of public welfare.
E. Representative individuals and organizations in the county.
F. School surveys of social-educational-economic conditions and such other professional literature as may contain findings applicable to the local situation.
G. Books, bulletins, magazines and newspapers containing claims made as to benefits resulting from a program of adult elementary education.

V. *Methods of obtaining the data*

A. Collect the claims that have been made as to benefits resulting from a program of adult elementary education.
B. Analyze the claims.
C. Subject them to as objective checks as possible for validity.
D. Interpret the findings.

As a beginning in collecting the claims, the twenty broadly stated values sought during the ten-year program of adult elementary education were used.

Original List of Values Sought in Ten-Year Program of Adult Elementary Education:

I. Adult student
    A. Mastery of the tools of learning
    B. Increased functioning in everyday life of knowledge gained
    C. Better health habits
    D. Happier, more normal home environment
    E. Increased initiative, and increased ability to express himself clearly
    F. Increased cooperation in community activities
    G. Increased participation in church activities
    H. Increased thrift activities
    I. Individual lives made happier

- J. More intelligent citizenship
- K. New interests
- L. Increased travel

II. Day school program

- A. Increased day school attendance through parents' first-hand knowledge of education
- B. Health programs made to function more effectively through the understanding cooperation of parents
- C. Decrease in number of problem children
- D. Incentive to attend day school and to complete high school
- E. Improvement in home and school cooperation through membership in P. T. A. or Community Club of several representatives from each evening school and by their reports to the evening school groups.

III. Pre-school child

- A. More normal, happy home environment
- B. More desirable attitudes, preferences, desires, health, and social habits.
- C. More successful administration of preventive and corrective health measures

Then fifteen educational experts, local, state and national, and twenty representative citizens of Buncombe County were asked to help in evaluating the list and in making it more comprehensive.

Finally, after determining by experiment how best to conduct the interviews the questions thus selected, together with an introduction, were combined into a form of interview or questionnaire.

Questionnaire

I. Introduction:

We are trying to get some information to help the Night Schools and are asking a good many questions of the students. If there are any of you who do not want to answer, it will be all right. But we hope you will want to tell us all we ask you, for this will help the schools.

Mrs. Morriss and all of the teachers have been working with Dr. Morrison, of the University of North Carolina, trying to get together information about the Night Schools which will show people that we ought to continue our schools, and that other counties ought to have them.

Now, we have got together all we know about Night School and we think the most convincing information we can get is what the pupils feel that it has done for them.

A. What are some of the things you do in your daily life you could not do before going to Night School?

1. Read?
   What do you read in newspapers?
   In magazines?
   Like?
   Do you use the library?
   How has it helped you in finding new words, using 'phone book, references in Bible, etc.?
2. Write?
   In your work?
   For yourself outside?
3. Figure?
   In connection with your job?

What do you figure that helps with home expenses?
Get examples of budgets, etc.?
In connection with your housekeeping?
Can you think of anything else?

B. How has your health and the health of your family improved since attending Night School?

1. In what way do you try to keep your children from having contagious diseases?
2. Name some of the better health habits.
3. Has Night School made any difference in what your family eats and how it is prepared?
4. Do you attend health clinics?
5. Has it made any difference in the cleanliness habits of your children or in the protection of their health?
   Any difference in taking care of the sick in your family?
   Do you see that your children have regular habits and what are they?
   Do you and your family take advantage of the services of the city or county health doctor and nurses?
   Is there any difference in the way you dispose of your waste now and before entering Night Schools?
   Has it made any difference in the exercise you take, or that you have your children take, and in providing them with fresh air?

C. What are some of the changes you have made in your home?

1. What are some of the modern conveniences you have?
2. What are some of the improvements you have made?
3. What are some of the things you eat every day which you don't have to buy?
4. What are some of the things you have learned in Cooking Class that you practise at home?

D. Initiative?

1. Do you have any new ideas?
2. What are they?
3. Do you see things by which you can help the Night Schools before someone else suggests them?
4. Do you see new ways in which you can help your employees?

E. Do you find that in talking to people, it is easier for you to make them understand what you mean?

1. How has it helped you?
2. Can you say exactly what you mean in talking to other people?

F. What are some of the things you do in connection with your children's welfare that you couldn't and didn't do before?

1. Do you cooperate with the day schools?
   In what way?
2. What are some of the things you do in the community now which you couldn't and didn't do before?
   Do you attend more different committee meetings?
3. How often have you visited the schools?
   Do you do more yourself for community organizations?
   P. T. A.? Night School? Church? Farm & Garden Club?
4. Do you encourage the children to respect the authority of the teachers and older people?

G. Do you make a better living?
    1. To what do you attribute the reason?
    2. Do you save more money?
    3. Do you save more in cooking, sewing, etc.?
    4. Are you better off, and in what way?

H. How has Night School helped you in your church work?
    1. What are some of the things you do in church?
    2. In Sunday School?

I. How has Night School increased your happiness?
    1. Do you think your family is happier?
    2. In what ways?

J. What are some of the things you are interested in doing now that you weren't before going to Night School?
    1. What are some of the better things in life which you appreciate more now?

K. Where are some of the places you go because you came to Night School?
    1. What are some of the forms of amusement you and your family enjoy that you didn't before?

L. Increased self-respect?
    1. Would you advise your friends to go to Night School?
       Why?
    2. Does it give you a chance to feel proud of things you do?

M. In what ways do you think you are a better citizen?
    1. Can you vote more intelligently?
    2. Do you understand better how the taxpayers' money is used?

N. Leadership?
    1. Do you feel freer to talk to strangers and to an audience?
       Why?
    2. Do you think you are a better parent?
       Why?
    3. Do your friends come to you for advice?
       Why?
    4. Name some of the things you do to help others.

O. Do you have higher standards of living?
    1. Do you live better?
    2. In what ways?
    3. Have you learned the importance of keeping a clean home?
       How do you go about this?

The list of students in the selected group of twenty-five, to whom the above test was given, was checked to make sure that it was sufficiently representative.

The remaining values constituted the final listing which was called "A Checklist of Life Activities." Simple column checks were arranged for the purposes of securing the opinion of the students as to whether the activities checked had benefited them in an economic way, in the use of leisure time, in selfrespect, in improved living conditions, or in improved citizenship. The checklist was administered to forty-nine students on a random list.

CHECKLIST OF LIFE ACTIVITIES

TO THE PUPIL: Please read very carefully each item, decide whether it is a thing which you have begun to do because of what you learned in night school, then check it in the proper columns, if it is. Notice that many of these items are things which you have not yet begun to do, some of them are things which you intend to do, some of them are things which you did before you started to night school, and some of them are things which you do, but not because of anything you learned in night school. Mark only the things which you do because of what you learned in night school.

After you decide you ought to mark an item, look at the sentences at the top of each column and decide in which columns you ought to place your mark. The sentence at the top of each column tells what a mark in that column means. For example you may decide that figuring grocery bills ought to be marked in the first column only, but the next item ought to be marked in the first, the second, and the fifth column.

	Enables me to make or to save more money	Increases my self-respect	Enables me to add to the happiness of myself and my family	Enables me to take a more active part in the life of my community	Enables me to improve the living conditions of my family
	1	2	3	4	5
I. Increased Economic Efficiency					
1. Figuring grocery accounts					
2. Looking up and taking down numbers in phone book					
3. Doubling recipes or cutting them down one-half					
4. Signing checks and all business papers					
5. Starting savings account					
6. Filling out money orders					
7. Earning money by selling produce					
8. Mending and darning clothes better					
9. Knowing how to save food; not wasting					
10. Making better gardens					
11. Saving left-over food					
12. Figuring and paying bills					
13. Counting money					
14. Writing receipts					
15. Reading directions for making a garden					
16. Writing down things to remember and directions to be followed					
17. Signing delivery slips					
18. Writing checks					
19. Dividing the way money is to be spent					
20. Reading advertisements for best prices					
21.					
22.					
II. New Interests					
1. Enjoying, reading and hearing about new things					
2. Taking more interest in school work because I see what it is worth					
3. Making children more interested in their school because I'm more interested					
4. Going to night school until I finish					
5. Visiting city hall and library					
6. Going to court house and night school office					
7. Going on more trips					
8. Visiting public buildings					
9. Reading highway signs					
10. Reading street car and bus names					
11.					
12.					
III. Wiser Use of Leisure Time					
1. Reading more books and better books					
2. Reading magazines for pleasure					
3. Writing and reading more letters					
4. Playing more games					

CHECKLIST OF LIFE ACTIVITIES (Continued)

	Enables me to make or to save more money	Increases my self-respect	Enables me to add to the happiness of myself and my family	Enables me to take a more active part in the life of my community	Enables me to improve the living conditions of my family
	1	2	3	4	5
5. Reading news items in paper					
6. Making more friends					
7. Making children and family happier					
8. Enjoying Night School parties					
9. Listening to radio					
10. Listening to phonograph					
11. Singing more and different songs besides hymns					
12. Reading Bible and understanding it better					
13. Reading Bible stories to children					
14. Studying Sunday school lessons at home					
15. Looking up Bible references					
16. Going to church more and helping in Sunday school and church activities					
17. More encouraged to attend Sunday school because of being able to take part					
18.					
19.					
IV. Increased Selfrespect					
1. Knowing and talking with people who have had better education than I					
2. Going to public places without embarassment					
3. Knowing better how to meet people					
4. Carrying on conversations more easily					
5. Reading and writing own letters					
6. Writing before people without embarrassment					
7.					
8.					
V. More Effective Citizenship					
1. Voting more often					
2. Reading and marking my own ballot					
3. Understanding more about what taxes are for					
4. Protecting school and other public property					
5. Helping to plan and carry out community projects					
6. Acting as officer or member of committee in societies or lodges					
7. Acting as member of committees in community school council and officers in school activity program					
8. Belonging to P. T. A.					
9. Helping neighbors with food problems; sharing recipes; giving garden cuttings and helping them plant their gardens					
10. Getting friends to go to night school and helping them to go					
11.					
12.					
VI. More Active Participation in Day School Activities					
1. Visiting day schools as often as possible					
2. Going to school entertainments					
3. Helping children with their lessons					
4. Taking part in plays					
5. Signing children's report cards					
6. Writing excuses for children's absences					
7. Encouraging neighbors to keep children in school					
8.					
9.					

CHECKLIST OF LIFE ACTIVITIES (Continued)

	Enables me to make or to save more money	Increases my self-respect	Enables me to add to the happiness of myself and my family	Enables me to take a more active part in the life of my community	Enables me to improve the living conditions of my family
	1	2	3	4	5
VII. Increased Ability to Gain New Ideas and to Express Them More Effectively					
1. Making more and better talks outside of night school classes					
2. Understanding better what other people read and being able to tell more about things I read					
3. Giving directions for doing things and going places more accurately					
4. Making explanations that are easier to understand					
5. Discussing something so that others understand better					
6.					
7.					
VIII. Better Care of Health of Self and Family					
1. Taking children to health clinic					
2. Planning better meals					
3. Having children keep health rules					
4. Looking after sick better					
5. Reading health papers					
6. Having foods that contain fruits and green vegetables					
7. Drinking more water and milk					
8. Planning and serving tray for sick person					
9. Brushing teeth oftener					
10. Packing school lunches					
11. Knowing importance of plenty of fresh air					
12. Being willing to have children vaccinated and inoculated					
13. Screening windows and doors					
14. Knowing importance of plenty of sleep					
15. Making better biscuits					
16. Having children's teeth treated					
17. Having children's eyes examined					
18. Having operation to remove tonsils and adenoids					
19. Reading doctor's directions					
20. Cleanliness in cooking—keeping kitchen and cooking vessels cleaner					
21. Taking baths more frequently					
22. Changing clothes more often					
23.					
24.					
IX. More Pleasant and Attractive Homes					
1. Cooking by recipes					
2. Keeping house cleaner					
3. Having more to eat and wear					
4. Making better provisions for children to bathe more frequently					
5. Ventilating homes					
6. Screening homes					
7. Reading magazines that tell about home, cooking, gardening, recipes, farming, etc.					
7. Using better table manners					
8. Carrying on pleasant conversation at meals					
9. Buying more attractive furniture					
10. Making home more attractive by:					
(a) Being well planned					
(b) Being well painted					
(c) Having well kept back and front yards					

CHECKLIST OF LIFE ACTIVITIES (Continued)

	Enables me to make or to save more money	Increases my self-respect	Enables me to add to the happiness of myself and my family	Enables me to take a more active part in the life of my community	Enables me to improve the living conditions of my family
	1	2	3	4	5
(d) Having flowers, grass and trees........					
(e) Having a pretty approach............					
(f) Having a few good pictures on the wall					
11. Making house work easier and more effective by buying:					
(a) Fireless cooker......................					
(b) Washing machine..................					
(c) Electric systems (Delco, etc.).........					
(d) Percolator..........................					
(e) Toaster............................					
(f) Kitchen sink........................					
(g) Bread board........................					
(h) Rolling pin.........................					
(i) Sieve...............................					
(j) Long-handled spoon..................					
(k) Biscuit cutter......................					
(l) Double boiler........................					
(m) Knife sharpener.....................					
(n) Dish drainer.........................					
(o) Spatula..............................					
(p) Can opener..........................					
(q) Food chopper........................					
(r) Egg beater...........................					
(s) Colander............................					
(t) Potato masher.......................					
(u) Cake turner.........................					
(v) Long handled dust pan...............					
(w) Paring knife........................					
(x) Shears..............................					
(y) Proper height table (30 inches for average woman)......................					
(z) Sewing machine and attachments......					
(1) Tape line.........................					
(2) Thimble...........................					
(3) Needles...........................					
12.					
13.					

VI. *What we can see as results of the study*—The responses were interesting and often surprising. They were carefully tabulated and the six values most frequently checked under each major heading were listed.

I. Increased economic efficiency (21 activities listed for checking).

1. Signing delivery slips
2. Signing checks and all business papers
3. Figuring grocery accounts
4. Writing checks
5. Reading advertisements for best prices
6. Dividing up the way money is to be spent

II. New interests (10 activities listed)

1. Taking more interest in school work because I see what it is worth
2. Reading highway signs
3. Going to night school until I finish
4. Enjoying, reading, and hearing about new things

5. Reading street car and bus names
6. Making children more interested in their school because I'm more interested.

III. Wiser use of leisure time (17 activities listed)

1. Writing and reading more letters
2. Making more friends
3. Reading more books and better books
4. Reading news items in paper
5. Making children and family happier
6. Enjoying night school parties

IV. Increased selfrespect (6 activities listed)

1. Knowing and talking with people who have had better education than I have
2. Carrying on conversations more easily
3. Reading and writing own letters
4. Knowing better how to meet people
5. Writing before people without embarrassment
6. Going to public places without embarrassment

V. More effective citizenship (9 activities listed)

1. Protecting school and other public property
2. Understanding more about what taxes are for
3. Helping to plan and carry out community projects
4. Reading and marking my own ballot
5. Helping neighbors with food problems; sharing recipes; giving garden cuttings and helping them plant their gardens
6. Voting more often

VI. More active participation in day school activities (8 activities listed)

1. Encouraging neighbors to keep children in school
2. Going to school entertainments
3. Signing children's report cards
4. Taking part in plays
5. Helping children with their lessons.
6. Writing excuses for children's absences

VII. Increased ability to gain new ideas and to express them more effectively (5 activities listed)

1. Understanding better what other people read and being able to tell more about things I read
2. Giving directions for doing things and going places more accurately
3. Discussing something so that others understand better
4. Making explanations that are easier to understand
5. Making more and better talks outside of night school classes

VIII. Better care of health of self and family (22 activities listed)

1. Taking baths more frequently
2. Reading health papers
3. Looking after sick better
4. Changing clothes more often
5. Screening windows and doors
6. Reading doctor's directions

IX. More pleasant and attractive homes (11 activities listed)

1. Using better table manners
2. Carrying on pleasant conversation at meals

3. Ventilating homes
4. Making better provisions for children to bathe more frequently
5. Reading magazines that tell about home, cooking, gardening, recipes, farming, etc.
6. Screening homes

The checking by the evening school students of the one hundred and nine "life activities," each one of which indicates helpful changes in the lives of most of the students, has a very real value and will probably prove helpful in the legislative hearings. It cannot yet be considered conclusive, however, as the checklist has not been administered to the control group of adult illiterates, untaught because unwilling to try. This will be done in the fall and the findings used in completing this part of the study.

In the present status, the study may best be considered as a description of the construction of an instrument for securing authentic data on values resulting from a program of adult elementary education—a homely and faulty instrument it may be, but at least it has been fashioned with care and without pattern, since no pattern could be found. Its value, as a practical tool, will be tested next year in working out the further problems which have suggested themselves during the working out of this one.

Problems indicated for further study—The most outstanding of these new problems are:

1. Case studies of the social, economic, educational and informational backgrounds and intellectual levels of the native illiterate adult.
2. Case studies of results accomplished by the education of the native illiterate adult in Evening Schools.
3. What classroom activities and materials correspond most nearly with life activities engaged in by native illiterate adults?
    - A. What types of activities and materials should precede the introduction of native adult beginners to textbooks?
    - B. What is the validity of standard and of recommended informal tests of reading for native adult beginners?
    - C. Amount and type of practise material necessary for use by native adult beginners in mastering the work of the first three grades.

THE LEISURE OF TOMORROW—ABSTRACT

JOY ELMER MORGAN, EDITOR, THE JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The four-hour working day has been predicted by the foremost thinkers in American industry. Most people have thought of it as something that would come in some future magic world. It is quite possible that many people who are now in the schools will live in an American social system where the four-hour day will be an accepted practise. Less than a century ago when Horace Mann was leading a great movement for the improvement of the schools the one hundred-hour working week was common. We now have a working week of approximately fifty hours. In other words the average reduction has been one half-hour per year.

Machines and combinations are now replacing men at a much more rapid rate than ever before and the process is likely to go on for sometime. It is reasonable to assume that the working week will be shortened an average of one hour per year. Starting with the fifty-hour week for 1930 we may therefore reasonably expect a forty-hour week, the equivalent of five eight-hour days, by 1940; a thirty-hour week, or the equivalent of five six-hour days, by 1950; and the twenty-hour week, or the equivalent of five four-hour days, by 1960.

These are really conservative figures. They suggest a problem which will require the combined efforts of school, home, church, and community to meet. This increase in leisure, this freedom from the restraints and disciplining influences of work may mean dissipation and degradation or through the processes of education it may mean the enrichment of life, the perfection of the creative arts, the building up of the home, and higher levels of civic achievement. It may mean a change of emphasis from mere money getting to the ideal of happiness and excellence as the basic aims of life.

If the school is to give training in leisure, changes must be made in its atmosphere and organization; the teacher load must be lightened; better library service must be established; playfields must be enlarged; leaders in adult education must be added to the principal's staff; school journeys and field trips must be encouraged; the art of gardening and homeplanning must receive more attention.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

First Session, Monday, June 30, 1930

1. Moved by Mr. Moyer of Massachusetts and seconded by Mr. Cavanaugh of Indiana University that the president appoint a nominating committee. Motion passed. Committee: Mr. Smith, New York; Mr. Castle, Pennsylvania; and Miss Burnett, Delaware.

2. Report of the editorial board and membership committee by Mr. Smith of New York. Motion by Mr. Deming, seconded by Mr. Hill of California that report be accepted. Motion passed.

3. Resolutions Committee report by Mr. Rejall of New York. Motion by Mr. Hill of California, seconded by Mr. Deming of Connecticut to accept. Motion passed, Resolutions adopted follow. The secretary was instructed to send copies to all appropriate persons.

Resolutions

WHEREAS, President E. Ruth Pyrtle of the National Education Association has deemed it wise to appoint a National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life Through Schools; and,

WHEREAS, The ever increasing complexity of our social order and the resulting intricate problems justify the appointment of such a body; therefore be it

RESOLVED, That the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association urges that every board of education provide in their respective budgets for the wider use of school buildings and that educational progress for parents, citizens, taxpayers, property owners according to the needs, interests, and abilities of the community be regarded as a part of the ideal of equal education for all as well as continuity in education; be it further

RESOLVED, That the Department reaffirms its stand on illiteracy as shown in the Atlanta proceedings to wit: "The reduction of illiteracy is a duty of federal and state governments. This means that the federal government should grant aid to and in cooperation with the states on the basis of the federal census in 1930; and that such a program aims at fourth grade literacy. It is not to be entered into with the idea of its completion in a short time, but should be sustained through a period of years, with adequately trained teachers and under state supervision, centering in the state education departments. Urges cooperation of all educational and patriotic organizations with the educational authorities in an effort to provide adequate financial support locally for the program."

RESOLVED, That the ability to read and write English understandingly and a general knowledge of the outstanding facts of American history and the principles of American government be made an additional qualification for citizenship in our country; and that Congress and the President be urged to pass legislation demanding proof of the above by means of a test to be devised by the Commissioner of Education and administered under rules adapted by the Bureau of Naturalization; and that a certificate be issued to any applicant who satisfactorily completed the examination or in lieu thereof produced evidence of having completed an elementary school covering a period of eight years in the United States.

WHEREAS, The United States Office of Education has from time to time published the results of studies and researches in the field of adult education; and

WHEREAS, They have been extremely helpful to teachers and administrators in this field;

WHEREAS, By its publications the United States Office of Education has given to the entire country a workable program in the important field of education; and

WHEREAS, The wide scope of study and research has embraced important fields of Adult Education,

BE IT RESOLVED, That the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association commends the United States Office of Education for this important service.

Members of the Resolutions Commitee:

S. R. ELSON, Nebraska
KATHERINE KOHLER, Minnesota
ALFRED REJALL, New York, *Chairman.*

4. Committee on Naturalization and Immigration report by Miss Burnett of Delaware. Motion by Mr. Moyer of Massachusetts, second by Miss Aiton of Washington, D. C., to accept. Motion carried.

5. Proposed Departmental letter for Cornerstone of new N. E. A. building read by Mr. Deming of Connecticut, approved upon motion of Mrs. Morriss of North Carolina, and seconded by Mr. Cavanaugh of Indiana.

6. President's report to assembled delegates was presented and accepted. (It is printed elsewhere in this book. See index.)

7. Secretary ordered to secure copies of all manuscripts and reports for transmittal to office of publications.

8. Dr. W. S. Gray of Chicago University at this time presented the findings of the sub-committee on technics of the National Illiteracy Commission.

9. Nominating Committee reported as follows:

President—L. R. Alderman, Washington, D. C.
Secretary—Alonzo G. Grace, University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.
Executive Director—Elizabeth Morriss, Buncombe County, N. C.
Treasurer—Agnes Winn, Washington, D. C.

Executive Committee

The following were nominated to serve with the officers and together will constitute the executive committee.

Katherine Kohler, Minneapolis
Frederick S. De Galan, Detroit
Robert Deming, Hartford

Officers and Executive Committee unanimously elected.

10. The Treasurer's report, by Miss Agnes Winn, showed a balance on hand for June 1, 1930, of $208.61. The report also showed a total of 909 members on the roll, June 30, 1930, 606 of whom had dues paid for 1929-30.

11. Recommended by Miss Winn:

1. A small membership committee consisting of two members of the executive committee and the treasurer. Mr. Smith, Mr. Grace and Miss Winn were appointed.
2. Committee on a Departmental folder. Mr. Smith, Mr. Deming and Miss Winn appointed.

Second Session, Tuesday, July 1, 1930

Approximately a hundred participated in the following program:

THE RESEARCH PROGRAM IN ADULT EDUCATION

John K. Norton, Director, Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

W. W. Charters, Director, Bureau of Educational Research and Professor of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

COORDINATION OF ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS AND COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

How to Determine the Adult Education Needs of a State
Marguerite Burnett, State Director of Adult Education, Wilmington, Del.

The Problem of the South
Wil Lou Gray, Supervisor of Adult Schools, State Department of Education, Columbia, S. C.

Third Session, Wednesday, July 2, 1930

Meeting of Department and National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life.

1. Alderman and Grace elected temporary president and secretary.
2. A constitution was presented and adopted.
3. The following officers were regularly elected:

President—James A. Moyer, Boston, Mass.
Vicepresident—Mrs. A. H. Reeve, Philadelphia, Pa.
James E. Russell, New York, N. Y.
Susan A. Dorsey, Los Angeles, Calif.
Secretary-Treasurer—James E. Rogers, New York, N. Y.

4. Agenda for consideration of the National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life arranged by the executive committee was presented at this time and with minor changes it was adopted for transmittal to state committees.

Fourth Session, Wednesday, July 2, 1930

The following dinner meeting program was presented:

Presiding:

L. R. Alderman, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Addresses:

Joy Elmer Morgan, Editor, Journal of National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

J. L. Clifton, State Director of Education, Columbus, Ohio

E. Ruth Pyrtle, Principal, Bancroft School, Lincoln, Nebraska; President, National Education Association.

Executive Committee Meeting, Tuesday, July 1, 1930

Revised Agenda for consideration of the National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life. Following statements agreed to:

Suggested Outline for State Committees

I. Objectives

A. *General*

1. To assist the National Education Association and the Department of Adult Education of the N. E. A. to secure greater cooperation and coordination of adult education through the agencies for public instruction.
2. To enable schools through Boards of Education to provide adequately for the education of adults.

B. *Specific*

1. To show the need for a coordinating agency where several programs operate jointly or separately in a community.
2. To bring before the public facts concerning leisure and the profitable and intelligent use of leisure.
3. To show the need for parental education and training for parenthood.
4. To show that adult education is a necessary part of the educational program.
5. To show the need for a program of informal adult education as well as formal courses.
6. To promote a research program for adult education.

II. Experience has shown:

A. That trained teachers and leaders are needed for the instruction of adults, particularly elementary grades.

B. That adult educational opportunities should be provided in rural communities as well as urban districts.

III. First steps

A. To suggest that each state education association or section thereof include in its main program a discussion on the general theme of adult education and the enrichment of adult life.

B. Suggest to teacher-training institutions the inclusion of credit courses in adult education.

C. Since "Adult Education" is the official organ of the Department of Adult Education of the N. E. A., it should be adopted as the official publication in the states.

Department of Business Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION was created in response to a petition read at the meeting at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., July 12, 1892, from the Business Educators' Association, requesting admission as a department of the National Education Association. See *Proceedings*, 1892:31. The Business Educators' Association was organized in New York City in 1878. Its constitution was revised for acceptance by the Department of Business Education and may be found on page 958 of the *Proceedings* of 1894.

The officers of the Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Helen Reynolds, Assistant Professor of Secretarial Studies, School of Commerce, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio; *Vicepresident*, B. Frank Kyker, Director, Department of Business, Berea College, Berea, Ky.; *Secretary*, Katherine Munkhoff, Instructor in Commerce, Grant High School, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

This Department meets once each year in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of the meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1893:787-807
1894:957-990
1895:862-891
1896:791-836
1897:792-824
1898:856-893
1899:998-1031
1900:542-582
1901:721-758
1902:644-702
1903:719-753
1904:709-737
1905:669-707
1907:877-905
1908:871-907
1909:701-719
1910:833-873
1911:827-869
1912:1031-1095
1913:619-637
1914:649-663
1915:883-941
1916:361-397
1917:315-345
1918:235-249
1919:259-271
1920:263-271
1921:369-377
1922:575-591
1923:553-568
1924:429-439
1925:354-365
1926:371-391
1927:335-352
1928:305-324
1929:317-334

PERSONNEL WORK IN THE COLLEGE OF COMMERCE AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY—ABSTRACT

C. W. REEDER, JUNIOR DEAN, COLLEGE OF COMMERCE, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

THE PERSONAL contact with the in-coming students in the College of Commerce and Administration, as well as for the entire University, begins with the freshman week exercises which precede the regular opening of the University. In the freshman week program, the students of the College of Commerce, as well as of the other colleges, are segregated into separate sections under direction of members of the faculty from their own colleges. This insures a college homogeneity which is quite advantageous.

One of the projects in the freshman week is a personal interview between the faculty adviser and the freshman. This interview is expected to consume at least one-half hour. In this contact the faculty adviser attempts, first of all, to let the new student know that the University is interested in him personally. Since such is the case, it is necessary to talk over a number of matters which vitally affect his welfare as a university student. Topics for discussion are suggested to the faculty adviser in a Freshman Week Interview Report, which he fills out for each student after the interview has occurred. The chief points for consultation are as follows:

(1) *Major educational interests*—The College of Commerce is only one of the colleges in the University. Students frequently register in this college, when their interests and vocational plans are entirely different. The interviewer is to ascertain if the course of study selected or the college of registration is in line with the major intellectual, professional, or vocational interests. If any more choices have been made, the thought is that a transfer to another college will be effected immediately, so the student will be getting the proper courses. In connection with a discussion of this problem, the interviewer tries to discover the factors which have influenced the student's choice. If he does not know what he wants, then efforts are made to assist him in a vocational choice.

(2) *Employment and financial plans*—Many students undertake almost impossible programs of study and selfsupport, and find out their folly when academic failure stares them in the face. The imagination is fired by stories of students who have worked their way through the University. But what price glory! Where one succeeds, many fail. So the faculty adviser in freshman week goes very carefully into the employment and financial plans of the new students. He finds out if a student has to work for full or partial selfsupport; if a job has been secured; where; how much time it will require; and the nature of the work. Many of these cases are followed up by the junior dean at a later date.

(3) *Health and physical defects*—Each student is given a very thorough medical examination upon entrance to the University. Reports upon such examinations are available to University officers. The faculty adviser in this interview is therefore not making a medical examination, he is only inquiring in a general way into the health of the student and trying to discover if he has any health worries, or obvious physical defects, particularly deafness or speech difficulties.

(4) *Living conditions*—The environment in which the student lives contributes not a little to his success or failure. There is a vast difference in the problems of a dormitory and a private house, regular study hours and hit-or-miss preparation, probation roommates, and senior honor students, etc. These factors are illuminating when interpreting the subsequent general record of a student.

(5) *Personal difficulties*—Students may seem care-free, but many of them carry heavy burdens of worry. There is sickness at home, financial problems of the family, domestic difficulties, racial prejudices, emotional conflicts, and other troubles equally serious. The faculty adviser is not skilled in the technic of a clinical psychiatrist, but he can get at the obvious difficulties which may upset a student.

(6) *Major extra-curriculum interests*—Many students look on "activities" as the main issue of University life, rather than "studies." Others recognize the proper relation of the two, but still like to indulge in the frills. The interviewer in freshman week can get a pretty fair line on the student's interests, and thus determine how much interference an activity program may have on a study program.

(7) *General estimate*—After talking with a student for half an hour and after discussing these fundamental relationships with him, the faculty adviser is asked to give an impression of the prospective student, whether he is extremely promising, fairly promising, average, doubtful, or generally weak and ineffective.

After the freshman week program is over, the interview report blanks are turned over to the junior dean. He reads each report critically, and if a student needs a follow-up interview for any reason, he is called to the office for conference. This is what is termed the "do something" stage. A stutterer is sent to the phonetic laboratory for treatment; a course is dropped for a student carrying a heavy employment load; a student deficient in previous preparation is sent to the remedial projects, etc. Every effort is made to bring the students as soon as possible into proper adjustment to their university obligations so they can proceed to meet the requirements of their courses. While the first month of the school year is devoted largely to this activity, yet adjustments have to be made throughout the year.

Another large project under way in the personnel program in the College of Commerce is the "interview section." This is so termed because the instructor has agreed with the junior dean to interview each member of his section at least once during the quarter. The interview will occupy at least twenty minutes. In this interview the instructor has several very definite things to do:

1. He is to show himself friendly to the student and to let him know he is interested in him.
2. He is to lay out a program for the brilliant and mentally superior student whereby he can get more out of the course by reading widely in the literature of the field, or doing special projects. Excuse from class attendance and other special concessions are part of the procedure.
3. For the average student, the instructor tries to discover elements of interest that may be used for better work. In case of any let down, toning-up measures are used.
4. For the weak students, analyses are made of the specific difficulties, and remedies sought.

In connection with this project, the junior dean's office supplies to each interview instructor a "Personnel Data Sheet" for each student in his class. The facts for this record are taken from a rather comprehensive application form which the student fills out when admitted to the University, and also from data in the office files and in the student's personnel folder. Among the facts noted are the following: Home community, high school, high-school rating, date of graduation, employment experience in high school, best subjects, poorest subjects, parentage, finances, health, vocational plans, intellectual interests, and scores on intelligence examination. If the student has had any university experience, a record is supplied of university grades, campus activities, comments from other interview instructors, and such other data as will assist the instructor to understand better his group of students.

At the close of each quarter, the instructor reports on each student interviewed. In general the following topics are used: Course work difficulties, social and personality difficulties, major interests, major handicaps, general impressions, recommendation to the junior dean. These reports become part of the personnel history of the student. They serve a variety of uses in understanding the students and in handling adjustments.

During the year 1929-30, fourteen different instructors in the junior area participated in this program. They taught 43 sections with a registration of 1053 students. Several hundred commerce students were members of such interview sections in other colleges, inasmuch as the same technic is followed there, too.

As to the net utility of the interview sections, we are not positive. The instructors are enthusiastic over the method. They accept the additional interviewing load voluntarily and are glad of the opportunity to get a better understanding of their students. The students enjoy the conferences because they find out the instructors are human. But we have yet to find an "interview" section that surpasses a "non-interview" section when final grades are concerned. However, we have found certain instructors that have a genius for motivating the superior student, but failing with the weak student, while others seem to have a knack of pulling a flunker out of the grave, but allowing a brilliant student to loaf along on an average grade. The ensuing year will see some very definite testing devices applied to the project to determine objectively its usefulness. However, the personal equation is worth much, even if a grade is not changed by such contacts.

While discussing the major-planned projects in the personnel program, attention must not be lost of the regular daily routine voluntary conferences which are conducted in the college offices. The utmost freedom exists between the college and its students. Literally, hundreds, if not thousands, of contacts are made in a year's time, so the personal relationships are part of the college atmosphere and taken for granted. However, methods are being adopted to multiply such contacts, and we shall not be completely satisfied until every teacher becomes a personnel officer to the extent that he contacts his students and becomes personally acquainted with them.

STANDARDIZATION: PRELIMINARY STEPS, SUGGESTIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS—ABSTRACT

E. M. HULL, PRESIDENT, BANKS COLLEGE, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

If I were to set up criteria for the private business schools, with their present day aims, they would be, in part, as follows:

1. Fewer courses of study, each with a uniform nomenclature.

2. The adoption of courses of study built around the needs of business.

3. All courses of study should be based on the standard semester hour plan and should be approved for breadth of study, and for concentration, with justifiable relations to the resources of the institution.

4. All courses of study having the same uniform nomenclature should have the same uniform content, with standards of measurement comparable with those of institutions of higher learning doing a similar type of work.

5. Classify schools that are already members of the Association on the basis of equipment, facilities for teaching, qualification of teachers, etc., but not on reputation.

6. On the supposition that member schools are to be classified as junior members and senior members—then the enrolment of junior member schools should be maintained on a minimum basis of fifty students, and that of the senior member schools on a minimum basis of one hundred students.

7. The requirement for admission of students to junior member schools should be as follows: Fifty percent of the student body should have at least 30 units from an accredited high school, and fifty percent of the student body may be admitted as special students. The admission of students to the senior member schools should be as follows: Seventy-five percent of the student body shall have satisfactorily completed a four year course of study in a secondary school approved by an accrediting agency recognized by the National Association of Accredited Commercial Schools, and twenty-five percent of the student body may be admitted as special students.

8. The employment of a faculty that will be approved by the accrediting agency of the National Association of Accredited Commercial Schools.

9. Each school should have at least four qualified instructors, at least three to be on fulltime.

10. The work given should be equivalent in prerequisite scope and thoroughness to the work done in a firstclass high school and the collegiate departments of commerce.

11. The course content and subject content should be worked out on the basis of instruction hours and laboratory hours of work, i. e., minutes per period, periods per day, hours per day, days per week, and weeks per year, minimum time period for course, and a uniform marking system to express the educational progress in grades.

12. All graduation should be based on the satisfactory completion of thirty-year hours, or sixty-semester hours of work.

13. No school should be accredited or given a standing until it has been inspected and reported upon by a committee regularly appointed for the purpose by the accrediting organization.

14. The scope of the committee appointed to examine or inspect each school, in each classification, every year should include the members' advertising, printed circulars, catalogues, business methods, professional ethics, equipment, methods of instruction, the instruction material, and the content of such material.

15. The equipment should be adequate, as may be determined by the inspection committee.

16. The building should conform to the standards set up for schools by the authorities of the municipality in which the school is located.

17. The school should have been in successful operation for a period of ot least three years before being admitted to membership.

18. A reasonable financial responsibility should be required. An income sufficient to maintain good service.

19. Each member school should be required to obtain a uniform charter —not as to the conduct of the school, but as to its educational aims and purposes.

20. The appointment of a physician's committee to diagnose the ills of schools and to prescribe the panacea needed to cure such ills as financial difficulties, reorganizations, interior adjustments, combining of interests with those of another school, changing managements, and other welcome services.

THE NECESSITY OF CLOSER RELATIONS BETWEEN BUSINESS AND THE SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

CAMERON BECK, PERSONNEL DIRECTOR OF THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE, NEW YORK, N. Y.

We have no fault to find, generally speaking, with the product of the modern secondary or business school. It is our opinion that the lad who comes to us with his high-school diploma or its equivalent is a young man who is fairly well grounded in the fundamentals. That he lacks certain essential things is evident. It is about some of these things I would call to your attention today.

The diploma of the high-school boy who comes to us tells us that he has some knowledge of books; it is easy to discover his interest in athletics, but the one thing we are concerned about more than anything else is *his character*. Has the classroom instilled into his life the thought that the training he was receiving was to be the foundation for substantial achievement in the future? Has he left the schoolroom with the idea firmly fixed in his mind that society has a right to expect of him that he be a worthy citizen?

Why is it that ninety of every hundred applicants at the close of an interview ask the question: How much is there in it? What are the hours? Is it not possible to teach children that work can be something more than a job and that wages can be something more than money? I would suggest that in modern textbooks there be introduced the word WORK, and that more thought be given to instilling into the minds of your students that work is a blessing and not a curse.

Teach your students the value of integrity. Following a chapel meeting at Iowa State College, Dr. Hughes, the president, asked me into his office and put this question: "How do you handle a liar?" Several years ago nine lads lied to us on their application blanks. You will be interested in knowing that they were separated from our employment within nine months. The ethics of modern business call for employees with integrity.

Teach them the value of old fashioned, rugged honesty in dealing with themselves and with others. Some time ago the dean of the School of Business of a great American university, and Channing R. Dooley of the Standard Oil were lunching with me. The dean turned to Dooley and asked him what he should teach his students, and Dooley's answer was: "Teach them common honesty. Teach them they will have to work with folks."

Many times I have seen a lad with intellectual rating kept out of a good position simply because in the twelve years he had been in the hands of you folks, he had failed to catch the idea that cleanliness is a valuable asset to a lad in the business world. It was not so long ago that I saw a high-school principal who "wore his food well."

Courtesy is the mark of a gentleman. In Wall Street, with all its speed, courtesy is still one of the most valuable assets youth can have. It has been the basis of many a promotion in the institution of which I am a part.

Teach your students the importance of being punctual. Business expects your graduates to come trained as punctual workmen. It might surprise you to know something of the time consumed in teaching employees this fundamental requirement of the modern business world. The youth in modern business who leaves "punctuality" out of his program is either mentally or physically ill.

The three "Rs" are still vital to business. Illegible handwriting on the part of one of our junior employees cost a member $720 the other day. Yet I am told that there is a movement to oust penmanship out of the curriculum and introduce typewriting.

Thoroughness in a few subjects instead of a smattering of a lot would meet the needs of business. Recently, in a western city, the vicepresident of a large insurance company asked me this question: "Why do I have to teach a graduate of our local commercial high school how to change a ribbon on a typewriter and how to make erasures correctly?" It is just such experiences that lead business men to ask for more thorough training in fundamentals.

It is necessary that students be prepared to meet the changing condition of a changing world. We are living at a time when pet theories need to be junked. The schools need to help students get the viewpoint that their minds need to be trained to meet changing conditions. "Changeless people in the midst of changing times" are hard to deal with in school and in business.

The personnel managers in any American city would be willing to cooperate with the schools in outlining the important points on "how to apply for a position." Everyone interested can profitably read and re-read the pamphlet printed by Columbia University on "How to Get and Keep a Job," by C. R. Dooley of the Standard Oil Company of New York. It has real "meat" in it.

As a friendly outsider looking in today, may I suggest that you make more of an effort to enlist the cooperation of the business men in your business education program. A banker in an eastern city told me a while ago that, outside of himself, I was the only man from the business world who had spoken to the students in four years. At a recent gathering somewhat similar to this I asked 150 commercial teachers how many of them during the school term had made one call on the business men of their communities to ask for the job requirements of the vocations they offered, and not one was willing to admit having made a call. Cooperate with the business men in your community by:

1. Inviting them to speak to your students on the qualifications needed to succeed in the vocations they represent.
2. Forming an advisory vocational council of business and professional men and women to give individual vocational interviews to students throughout the year.
3. Having students visit the various business and industrial concerns who use the school's product.
4. Making personal calls upon employers and personnel directors to secure first-hand vocational and employment information.
5. Making a constant effort to raise the standards of schools of business education to the same standards of academic schools.

When this closer relation between business and the schools becomes more of a reality, there will be a deeper understanding of each other's problems and a lessening of the gap which now exists between two important divisions of society which can ill-afford to attempt to get along without each other's help.

EVALUATING BUSINESS EDUCATION BY BUSINESS —ABSTRACT

B. FRANK KYKER, DIRECTOR, DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS, BEREA COLLEGE, BEREA, KY.

Business is unmistakably clear as to what subjects are not being thoroughly taught in the general preparatory training of commercial workers. With hardly an exception business reports deficiencies in the fundamentals of grammar, composition, English, and spelling; arithmetic with reference to the fundamental processes, speed and accuracy, and handwriting. These deficiencies are found in the work of the stenographer and transcribing machine operator, in mathematical computations not performed on special machines, and in the multitude of written records that are made by one clerk and must be read by several clerks. In personal interviews, sales work, telephone conversations, and written applications deficiencies in oral and written English are outstanding.

As my subject deals primarily with the evaluation of business education, I shall now consider the definitely specialized commercial training. As I classified and analyzed the opinions of business, there are three conclusions which are warranted by the actual statements of business or their direct implication.

First: The socalled "short courses" in business are wholly inadequate to provide the essential training for the senior office positions. Short courses are reported as making it difficult to obtain a position and greatly reducing the chances for promotion.

Second: A combination of typewriting, shorthand, and a smattering of bookkeeping does not provide satisfactory training for the positions for which such a course purports to give training.

Third: Relatively few high schools and private business colleges offer the kinds of differentiated business courses necessary to qualify for the positions in which 80 to 90 percent of commercial employees are engaged. In other words, our high schools are offering training for 10 to 20 percent of the commercial positions.

Whether the school should provide training for these junior commercial positions and special machine operators may be a question in your mind, but I can assure you that business is convinced of the desirability of including in the commercial curriculum the training of such commercial employees. In a comprehensive survey, which will soon be off the press, I found only three exceptions to this statement. More office managers stated that the use of the check writer, switchboard, and special machines used by mail clerks should be learned on the job than taught at school.

While business in its evaluation of our product is fully convinced of certain deficiencies and limitations of secondary commercial education, yet as I stated previously there were office managers who reported high schools and business colleges that were graduating excellently prepared commercial employees. In many cases these employers were fully aware of the extent, scope, and nature of the commercial courses. An investigation of the schools from which these employees came revealed what seems to me an adequate explanation of the satisfactory product of these schools.

First: These high schools had an organization or personnel for educational and vocational guidance. The commercial courses were not the dumping ground for mentally weak students, nor were commercial graduates placed indifferently in positions for which they were obviously unfitted.

Second: In every instance except one these high schools offered four distinct commercial majors; namely, stenography, bookkeeping, merchandising, and general clerical training.

Third: It should be carefully noted that in these high schools there were research and curriculum organizations that in cooperation with business made surveys, job analyses, and arrangements for cooperative employment.

Fourth: As you would expect, the responsible teachers in these schools represented men and women who were trained professionally, experienced in business, and aggressive in their leadership.

What are the traits and qualities so significant and vital in commercial education? Business has been very generous in furnishing me with a list, but frankly no general list of desirable traits and qualities would be valuable. Only as qualities and traits are identified with a definite position and specific duty is the commercial educator able to develop specific habits with the desired trait action.

To the extent that the commercial educator can develop such specific habits as neatness and accuracy of work, and neatness of person, develop an attitude of loyalty and a sense of responsibility, and devise exercises that will develop poise and strengthen personality, to that extent will the commercial educator make a significant contribution to the Vital Values of Commercial Education.

WILL A PRACTICAL OFFICE TRAINING DEPARTMENT EVER BE DEVELOPED?—ABSTRACT

MARGARET H. ELY, INSTRUCTOR IN SECRETARIAL STUDIES, CARNEGIE INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, PITTSBURGH, PA.

A practical office training department is bound to form an important part of any clerical training curriculum. It seems fairly certain that considerably more than half of our high-school commercial pupils go into positions which may be classed as clerical, approximately ten percent do stenographic work, and a slightly smaller percent are engaged in some form of bookkeeping. Figures like these are based on large numbers of office workers, including pupils who did not graduate from high school. Follow-up studies of high-school commercial graduates show a larger percent of pupils whose positions require a knowledge of bookkeeping or stenography.

The list of traits demanded by the personnel managers of large financial institutions—willingness to learn, the habits of accuracy, thoroughness, reliability, of seeing a thing through, a certain degree of initiative, a high standard of achievement—is certainly a challenge to teachers of business subjects. The teaching of such traits is a difficult matter and one about which we know very little as yet. Most of us are familiar with what Dr. W. W. Charters has written in regard to teaching for ideals and character. In the November, 1929, issue of the *Journal of Business Education,* Dr. E. G. Blackstone expresses the opinion that the next great movement in education is already upon us, and that the next generation will see attention turned in increasing measure and with progressively greater success to the active development of character traits and to the development and integration of personality.

I submit that the office training department offers peculiar possibilities for this training. Furthermore, it is my belief that the success of such a department may be measured to a large extent by the degree to which it provides for the development of the necessary character traits. The work of this department must be so arranged that such traits as those mentioned by Dr. Tildsley will, of necessity, be developed as a natural outgrowth of the problems and tasks assigned.

Mr. Arthur H. Carver has given us a much needed reminder as to the type of teacher who must handle such important work as this. He says:

> Teachers cannot acquaint their pupils with the true spirit and atmosphere of American business unless they themselves have become familiar with it in some other way than by mere hearsay.

But let us take it for granted for the moment that our teachers are experienced in the ways of the business world, and that they do have the cooperation of the school administration to the extent of securing a few hundred dollars' worth of machine equipment. What must they teach in a practical office training department in order to develop the very necessary traits which we have mentioned?

A few lists of duties have been prepared. We have been seeing them in the professional magazines for some years past. But have we seriously undertaken the task of teaching the necessary character traits while we teach the skills necessary to perform these duties? That is the challenge which I want to leave with this group of teachers today. We must find ways and means of teaching not only the duties, but also the traits or qualities.

In an office practice course a great deal can be done toward developing dependability and the trait so closely akin to it, "responsibleness," as Charters calls it. Work assigned to be done outside the class, such as reports on collateral reading, can be required at a certain definite time, with the understanding that no excuses will be accepted. If the pupil realizes that these requirements are made not arbitrarily, but with the definite purpose of developing in him certain traits and habits that are absolutely essential for maintaining employment and winning promotion, he will, in all probability, adapt himself to the situation and get the work in on time. The prospect of employment forms an incentive to the pupil in a commercial course which in the academic course can be supplied only by the highly artificial stimulus of requirements for college entrance, or perhaps the honor roll. A pupil taking the commercial course can be told very plainly that recommendation for a job will depend in large measure upon his willingness to make every effort toward the development of essential character traits, as well as reasonable proficiency in the necessary skills.

Now to return to the list of duties which are to be the means of developing these traits. The first consideration in connection with any duty is the question of whether or not specific instruction must be given in it. In the composite list which I have prepared, each duty is fairly comprehensive and general in its wording, and each duty seems to require some specific training.

The next question is: Where shall this training be given, in school or on the job? If the training is to be given in school, in what course may it properly be taught?

The thirty-six duties which I have included in this list may be grouped roughly under three very general headings as follows:

Duty	Handle in school	Courses	Traits
Communication, Personal Service			
Reporting and transcribing	x	S T OP	Accuracy, speed
Editing dictation	x	S T OP	Intelligent judgment
Correspondence work	x	BE	Ability to follow directions
Handling incoming mail	?	OP	Accuracy, judgment
Handling outgoing mail	?	OP	Responsibility
Filing and related filing duties	x	OP	Accuracy, following directions
Telegraph service	xth	T OP	Dependability
Telephone service	xth	OP	Tact, courtesy, self-control
Remitting funds and securing receipts	xth	OP	Accuracy, dependability
Planning itineraries and securing transportation	x	OP	Persistence, initiative
Meeting the public	?	OP	Courtesy, tact, appearance, poise
Making appointments for executive and keeping the records	?	OP	Accuracy, tact
Reports in *legible* longhand, use of reference books	x	P H E OP	Industriousness, neatness
Preparing copy for the printer and reading proof	xth	OP	Accuracy
Keeping personal financial records and handling other transactions with bank	xth	B OP	Accuracy
Record Keeping			
Making statistical records	x	B OP	Accuracy, neatness
Making bookkeeping, accounting or financial records	x	B	Accuracy, neatness, judgment
Personnel and other routine records, involving knowledge of risks assumed by employer as one responsible for acts of his employees	xth	CL OP	Accuracy, judgment
Keeping stock records	?	OP	Accuracy, dependability
Inventory taking	?	OP	Accuracy, dependability
Cost figuring	x	B	Judgment, accuracy
Figuring discounts	x	B M	Accuracy
Recording orders	?	B OP	Accuracy
Making out payrolls	xth	OP	Judgment, accuracy
Checking and verification	x	M OP	Accuracy, initiative
Cashier work	x	OP	Accuracy, tact, appearance
Routing shipments	xth	OP	Resourcefulness
Office Machine Operation			
Dictating machine	x	OP	Accuracy, speed, judgment
Decimal tabulator (key set)	x	OP	Accuracy, speed
Long carriage tabulating	x	OP T	Accuracy, speed
Mimeograph	x	T OP	Neatness, accuracy
Gelatine duplicating	x	T OP	Accuracy, speed
Multigraph	x	OP	Accuracy, speed
Addressograph	x	OP	Accuracy, speed
Adding and listing machine	x	B OP	Accuracy, speed
Calculating machine	x	OP	Accuracy, speed
Billing machine	x	OP	Accuracy, speed
Bookkeeping machine	x	OP	Accuracy, speed
Care of mechanical equipment	x	OP	Responsibleness, resourcefulness
Slide rule	x	OP	Accuracy, speed

LEGEND

S Shorthand class
T Typing
OP Office Practice
BE Business English
P Penmanship
H History
E English
B Bookkeeping
CL Commercial Law
M Mathematics
x May be taught in classroom
xth May be taught in theory but not in actual practice in most schools
? Difficult to handle in most schools; better taught on the job

After all, the most difficult phase of developing a practical office training department is probably the securing of a teacher who is equal to the undertaking. I should like to end this paper with the final paragraph of the article by Mrs. Cranna referred to above: "Get someone with enthusiasm, initiative, ingenuity, and the ability to read and follow directions; get her the required machines, a manual for each machine, and a few lessons from a skilled operator of each machine; then see that she does not have too many other classes to each, and she can successfully conduct your course in office practise."

VITAL VALUES IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION —ABSTRACT

IRVING R. GARBUTT, DIRECTOR, COMMERCIAL EDUCATION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, CINCINNATI, OHIO

A curriculum of business education should include education for general efficiency, education for one's specialized field of service, education for social relationships, and education for citizenship. These, then, may be set up as being the vital values in education for business or for the business of living.

In the development of the business curriculums, many plans and ideas have been tried out, many have been discarded altogether, and many more have been modified to meet prevailing or growing needs. This is due in a large measure to the changing ideas as to what this type of education should do, and what it should stand for in the general scheme of education. In its early stages it had little or no standing and no definite aims or standards, its purpose being to train for certain vocational skills. Education for business has now assumed sufficient importance among the other varieties of education to require definite aims. These aims may be set up as follows:

1. To train the child in the general and vocational fundamentals for the business of living
2. To develop the personal attributes of the individual, by study and experience, to the end that his best destiny may be accomplished
3. To create and develop constructive and organizing power so that the individual may become an originator in the field of commerce
4. To awaken a spirit by a combined general and commercial education that will make the individual a desired leader and a real business force in the community
5. To teach honesty and fair dealing, because honesty is a fundamental need in all human relations
6. To show the need of good health, because good health and energy are the first essentials of efficiency, success, and happiness
7. To equip the normal youth with certain powers and skills in motor processes that he will find useful in his immediate endeavor to earn a living in a recognized business activity
8. To impart in the process of study the qualities of right living, a sacred regard for the rights of others, and a loyalty and devotion as a citizen to one's country.

TYPEWRITING—A SUBJECT TO BE TAUGHT—ABSTRACT

HELEN REYNOLDS, SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, OHIO UNIVERSITY, ATHENS, OHIO

Mr. Barnhart of the Federal Bureau for Vocational Education at a meeting here in Columbus last fall defined three kinds of typewriting as follows:

1. Personal typing, by which is meant the acquisition of a degree of proficiency sufficient to enable the typist to write personal letters, manuscripts, etc., accurately, at a rate superior to longhand—possibly twenty to twenty-five words a minute on straight copy.
2. General business typing, by which is meant the acquisition of a degree of proficiency sufficient to enable the typist to meet the ordinary demands of business for typing as a tool in the performance of other work—possibly twenty-five to thirty-five words a minute on straight copy.
3. Vocational typing, by which is meant the acquisition of a degree of proficiency sufficient to enable the typist to utilize the skill as a major tool in the earning of a living, requiring a rate of not less than forty-five words a minute, accurately written.

The students who take typing for personal use will need to know how to operate the typewriter as a mechanical device, how to clean and oil the typewriter, how to change ribbons. They must master the whole keyboard. They will want to know about manuscript forms, cover, tables of contents, arrangement of bibliographies, how to make good looking note books. They will need to know possibly two standard forms of letter arrangement and what is good style in addressing envelopes. They will need practise in composition directly on the typewriter, since that is one of the ways they wish to use their skill.

In addition to these things, the typist who expects to make general business use of his skill will probably need a wider acquaintance with letter forms. He should be familiar with typewriter duplication—the mimeograph and the hectograph processes. He will need to be skilled in filling in forms, in card writing, and in taking dictation to the machine. He will need to have developed his skill to a higher degree than will the personal typist.

The professional typist, besides needing all the information required by the general business typist, will require ability to transcribe from shorthand or phonograph to the typewriter all types of letters, business papers, minutes; must be skilled in making tabulations, in handling rough copy, etc.

The good personal typist can be developed in a semester; the good general business typist, in a year; and the good professional typist, in two years of high-school work. Personal typists, it would seem, could better be taught in a course entirely by themselves. General business and professional typists could be taught together with some variations in the second semester to suit their differing needs.

At least four things should characterize any good method of teaching typewriting:

1. The good method should provide adequate direction of the student's learning

2. It should provide adequate checkup of the student's progress at regular intervals on comparable material, so as to measure the student's progress and not the difficulty of the material, and should provide objective demonstration to the student of that progress, together with

3. Detailed analysis of the student's accomplishment followed by remedial instruction designed to solve each student's particular difficulty

4. It should provide that the student learn typing as nearly as possible in the way in which he will later use it.

I am going to outline to you a method of teaching beginning typewriting which we are using at Ohio University, which we believe possesses these four characteristics. I am not urging it as *the* method—I am only suggesting that it is *a* method which we have tried here with seven beginning classes under three different teachers, with results that seem to us to justify our using it.

The beginning class is first given blank keyboard charts, similar to those used in the Wiese-Coover method, which are thumb-tacked to the desks. The students are directed in placing their hands in correct typing position on that chart. A wall chart of the keyboard is before the class in view of all. The teacher instructs as to the location of keys, with what fingers struck, and dictates keyboard drills which the student taps out on the chart. This provides for muscular as well as for mental memorization of the keyboard, and prevents watching the keyboard as an aid to memory. The keyboard drills are designed to associate all the keys to be struck by one finger with that finger, and are designed to return the student's finger to home position—as frftfgfvfbf, dedcd, etc.—until the whole keyboard has been covered. The students test the adequacy of their memorization of the keyboard by tapping the alphabet forward and back to dictation, reporting the letters not accurately remembered. The teacher dictates some special practise on these letters affording difficulty, then the alphabet is tried again. The class then fills in from memory a blank keyboard chart, checks the errors, and practises, individually, to correct them. Next the class is transferred to the typewriter keyboard, first tapping the keys without striking, then striking the keys. The first of a list of alphabet sentences is dictated for this practise. The use of the chart enables the student to concentrate on the mastery of the keyboard without the interference of the machine as a mechanical device. It enables him to go to the typewriter knowing something about it. It is, of course, necessary to give drills in position of hands and body, in insertion and removal of paper, setting margins and line space regulator, in carriage return, etc.

The students are now given copies of the first list of alphabet sentences which are written without indentation or capitals, and are told to watch the copy and type as the teacher dictates. The dictation is done letter by letter clear through the sentence without comment. It is repeated and the class is asked if any have it without error—with one error. The sentence is dictated a third time and the class asked to check errors to find out what is causing them and to practise in succession those words causing difficulty. The teacher goes through the class to help students to recognize the cause of errors and to give remedial instruction. The sentence is again dictated with the same error check. Toward the close of the period, students work on the sentence list, copying in succession groups of three, as sentences 1, 2, 3, then 2, 3, 4, then 3, 4, 5. They write each group three times, striving for correct copy, but go on after the third effort whether correct or not. This helps to prevent the sacrifice of correct method to correct copy and insures adequate repetition for learning. Students are instructed to check errors after each writing of a group of sentences, to practise to correct those errors. After the first week, papers are collected daily. Students check the first writing of review copy and the first writing of new copy. These, only, are considered by the instructor for error, as the basis for remedial instuction.

After the first week, timed copy is given once a week—three minutes at first and gradually increased to fifteen minutes by the end of the semester. International contest copy is used for this purpose to insure securing material of even difficulty. This timed copy is analyzed according to Blackstone's error analysis chart, so that the student can see what things are causing his greatest difficulty. Care is taken to note the type of error as analyzed by Dr. Book—whether faulty location, wrong finger movement, transposition, anticipation and omission, anticipation and addition, substitution, crowding and piling, etc., as these tend to indicate the level of control on which the student is operating.

The method is a particularly flexible one, making possible the adaptation of subjectmatter and rate of progress to the individual student's need. It is also adaptable to different teachers and to different groups of students, as our experience has shown. It enables the teacher to direct the learning of each student so as to overcome the particular difficulties of that student as revealed by his analyzed copy and by the direct observation of his method.

NEW TRENDS IN COMMERCIAL TEACHER TRAINING —ABSTRACT

M. E. STUDEBAKER, HEAD OF DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE, BALL STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, MUNCIE, IND.

A most happy indication of trends in commercial teacher training is apparent in the increased requirement for educational training and license of commercial teachers. The unusually large demand in the face of an insufficient supply of commercial teachers has been a negative factor in the improvement of commercial teacher training in the past. With the supply gradually reaching the demand, state departments are raising license requirements from the old type state examination with two or three years of training to four years of training in an approved college or university.

Teacher-training institutions are adapting their curriculums to meet these changing conditions in license requirements.

An important factor in the improvement of commercial teacher training is the result of a new conception of the meaning of commercial education. We are gradually departing from the traditional strictly vocational aims of commercial education to a realization that it should give the student a knowledge of the basic realities of life and relationships in addition to preparation for occupational activities.

Commercial teacher-training institutions should recognize this new philosophy of commercial education in their teaching program. They should keep in touch with the business world and teach their students to go out and meet the requirements set up by the business man.

Cooperation on the part of the college of education and the college of commerce in the commercial teacher-training program of our colleges and universities, improved student teaching, a demonstration school which serves as an educational laboratory for new ideas and theories, practical business experience, training for leadership, research studies, and literature in commercial education are indications of the trend of training for commercial teachers.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

The Department of Business Education with President J. L. Harmon presiding had three session as scheduled in the official program. The Chamber of Commerce, however, was not represented at the luncheon conference. This luncheon at the Fort Hayes Hotel was well attended. The speaker was C. W. Reeder, Junior Dean of the Ohio State University School of Commerce. His subject was "Personal Work in the College of Commerce at Ohio State University." Mr. Cameron of Ford Motor Company was not present, telegraphing the day before that he could not get there.

The second session was featured by the address of Mr. Cameron Beck of the New York Stock Exchange. Mr. Beck had also printed for distribution some very helpful criticisms on the results of commercial education as viewed by 1500 personnel directors representing all sections of the country and many types of business. The other numbers were speeches by Mr. Hull and Miss Margaret Ely as in the official program. Professor McKinsey did not come nor send his paper.

The third session was as scheduled in the official program.

The local chairman for this year who did much to contribute to the success of the program was J. J. Priest of Central High School, Columbus, Ohio.

Department of Classroom Teachers

THE DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS held its first session at the St. Paul meeting, July 8, 1914. It was organized in response to petitions representing classroom teachers in all parts of the country. See *Proceedings*, 1914:909. The Department was reorganized under a constitution at the Boston meeting in July, 1922. For the constitution and bylaws of this Department see *Proceedings*, 1924: 568-70. The Department of Classroom Teachers cooperates with the National League of Teachers' Associations.

The officers of the department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Miriam D. Eisner, 3098 California St., San Francisco, Cal.; *Vicepresident*, Esther Helbig, 1033 Melrose Terrace, Dubuque, Iowa; *Secretary*, Florence M. Dickinson, 249 Windsor Ave., Haddonfield, N. J.; *Regional Directors*, Eastern Section, Sara H. Fahey, 122 W. 75th St., New York, N. Y. (Term expires 1931) ; Middle Section, Frances E. Harden, 1543 Sherwin Ave., Chicago, Ill. (Term expires 1932) ; Western Section, Faye Read, 1425 Vernon Ave., Pueblo, Colo. (Term expires 1933). This Department meets at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1914:909-916
1915:1161-1177
1916:637-652
1917:615-622
1918:381-389
1919:375-392
1920:343-355
1921:399-406
1922:683-691
1923:569-620
1924:460-499
1925:365-402
1926:391-423
1927:352-390
1928:325-352
1929:335-368

AN APPRAISAL OF AGENCIES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHER IN SERVICE—MERITS AND WEAKNESSES OF COLLEGE SUMMER SCHOOLS AND OTHER CULTURAL AGENCIES—ABSTRACT

MARY R. BARNETTE, TEACHER, HUGHES HIGH SCHOOL, CINCINNATI, OHIO

TO RETAIN the confidence of the sophisticated adolescent in this age of dynamic change, teachers must continually revise and supplement their store of knowledge. Indeed the student's lay environment today determines his intellectual climate possibly to a greater extent than do halls of learning. And modern technology affords numerous devices for the dissemination of information. With these the schools must compete—hence, the necessity of improving the high-school personnel and service.

In university summer schools pedagogs may enrich their scholarship, and receive stimulation from groups likely to be cosmopolitan rather than provincial. Freed from home and school duties one may study in a more leisurely and scholarly manner. Carried to excess, however, vacation study is detrimental to health and personality and may seriously impair teaching efficiency the ensuing winter. Again, some professors make their courses unnecessarily burdensome loading students with impossible reading assignments. What is more reprehensible, a teacher seeking light in his subject is often reduced to the status of unpaid research assistant. To any sort of exploitation, busy, conscientious teachers are unalterably opposed; if they must drink, let it be from living waters, not stagnant pools.

Extension courses taken while teaching are beneficial if administered intelligently. By means of these, the teacher may march with educational progress, earn a degree not otherwise obtainable, save the summer for travel and recreation, and through interchange of ideas receive valuable help and inspiration. Such activities, however, in the opinion of a large majority of classroom instructors, constitute a potential menace to the health. Furthermore, they seriously question whether effective graduate study can be engaged in while teaching. It is very likely to result in the loss of classroom efficiency because of surplus time and energy necessarily consumed. Many progressive school systems now grant sabbatical leave for study, research, and travel.

Membership in learned societies, a third agency for enlightening the teaching profession, is favored by all alert pedagogs because such bodies afford stimulating contacts and furnish opportunity for the teacher to contribute something to the community. More specifically, contact with intelligentsia outside the schoolroom provides a medium for learning current problems from experts; makes one a world citizen and rids one of narrowness and provincialism; creates an incentive for worthwhile reading; holds more inspiration than some college courses because of broader contacts and interests; and, finally, affiliation with forward looking men and women enables one to share the experiences of leaders who have spent months securing information which they give in condensed form.

In evaluating general cultural assets teachers believe that, after a certain level in academic training, travel has greater potentialities for improving instruction than any other means. In teaching language, literature, history, geology, botany, art, and many other studies travel is simply invaluable. First-hand contact with reality thus enables the instructor to vitalize his teaching in no other way possible. Travel should be recognized as an essential part of a teacher's equipment and credited accordingly, as many progressive schools are doing.

The implications of the necessity of the continued training of teachers in service is almost too obvious to need comment. Such improvement is costly to the teacher. Beneficiaries of the public schools cannot reasonably expect this extra outlay without continued adequate remuneration. From a purely economic point of view, public education is the nation's most productive enterprise. Without the trained product of the public schools the wheels of great corporate industry would cease to turn. Research chemists who receive their preliminary training in public high schools, by directing the utilization of byproducts and improving processes, alone add millions to the coffers of big business. Patrons of public schools today have an inadequate appreciation not only of the enormous productivity of their public schools, but also of the years of arduous struggle and expenditure of money required to make teachers. One dislikes to be materially minded about knowledge—an asset which has so many fine spiritual values, but education will have to be "sold" to the public just as other commodities and services are sold. High grade skilled instruction must be paid for, as Rolls Royce cars are paid for. We need not less, but more money for this great enterprise. Too little is yet known about the human mind. With more funds for research the product of the public schools could doubtless be improved a hundredfold. And the mind of the American public being essentially sound may be counted upon to vote public funds for whatever it is *convinced* is a good "investment."

SELFGOVERNMENT AND SELFMASTERY—ABSTRACT

FLORENCE E. ALLEN, JUDGE OF SUPREME COURT OF OHIO,
CLEVELAND, OHIO

Masaryk, the distinguished President of the Czecho-Slovakian Republic, recently said that democracy means selfgovernment—and that means selfcontrol. In other words, the problem facing America is exactly the problem facing the individual, that of mastering his own spirit. Now the first symptom of lack of selfcontrol is the tendency to blame others for our misfortunes. This tendency is manifest in America today. Instead of blaming ourselves for the sordid and corrupt conditions which we see manifest in politics, we blame the congress and the legislatures, the officials and the courts. Nowhere is this tendency more manifest than in our remarks upon the jury system. We constantly blame the jury for the miscarriage of justice. It is true that now and then juries return preposterous verdicts. It is also true that every major defect in the jury system could be eliminated by the mobilization of public opinion toward the securing of better jury service. This can be done in many instances without statutory change, and I commend it to this great body as a subject peculiarly within its power. We could secure infinitely wiser jury verdicts by (1) eliminating the unfit from the jury; (2) inducing and compelling the attendance of the fit; (3) stimulating pride in and understanding of the privilege of jury service.

The elimination of the unfit from the jury can usually be done by bringing pressure in that direction upon the jury commissioners or the officials immediately in charge of the jury lists. Usually the mere adoption of rigid rules with respect to the use of persons who understand English, who are deaf, epileptic, or in other physical or mental ways unfit to serve, results in immediate raising of the standard.

Nowhere can the obligation and privilege of jury service be taught better than in the schools. The mere change of attitude toward the jury and mere comment from time to time by the teacher upon the fact that with the age of majority comes the right to help the state solve important judicial problems would kindle in the growing child an interest in that service. That interest will of itself tend to eliminate evasion of jury service and to stimulate pride in performing the function. In solving the problem of jury service America will be learning to master herself.

SPECIAL EDUCATION AS A NEW DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION—ABSTRACT

EDGAR A. DOLL, DIRECTOR OF RESEARCH, TRAINING SCHOOL, VINELAND, N. J.

Compulsory education requires that all children attend public school during certain years of their lives. The successful instruction of many children is handicapped by reason of various mental and physical defects, such as defects of hearing, defects of vision, crippled condition, mental deficiency, emotional conflicts, behavior problems, and the like. Special education is that field of school administration which deals with the adequate care and instruction of such mentally, physically, and socially handicapped children in classes especially adapted to their needs.

Special education began with the blind and the deaf. With the advent of medical inspection special education was extended to include other types of physically handicapped children, such as the undernourished, the physically enfeebled, and the tubercular. The largest development of special education, however, came with the recognition of the mentally subnormal and their inability to profit from the ordinary course of study. Still later, incorrigible and behavior problem children were segregated for special types of education. These were followed in turn by special classes for gifted children and, still more recently, by special classes for the emotionally handicapped, including children with speech defect.

Special education today includes many different types of handicapped children, and constitutes an important specialized field of school administration. The extension of suitable facilities, curriculums and methods of instruction for different types of children is one of the most important movements in modern education. Surveys of the needs of exceptional children have indicated at least sixteen different types of children requiring specialized instruction outside of the regular classrooms, each type of specialized instruction presenting problems of its own.

Equality of educational opportunity as well as the demand for increased efficiency of instruction for both normal and exceptional children indicates the need for further development of all types of special classes. The nature and extent of such needs call for specialized knowledge and the coordination of many types of specialized educational technic.

NEEDS IN RURAL EDUCATION TODAY—ABSTRACT

CHARLES L. SYRON, VICEPRESIDENT, DALLAS CLASSROOM TEACHERS ASSOCIATION, DALLAS, TEXAS

1. *Better trained teachers* to be provided by more careful selection, by more rigid certification, and by making available to them special courses on rural education in the normal schools.

2. *Retention of rural children in the rural schools* until they have graduated from high school, by providing better educational facilities in the consolidated schools in the country— thus discontinuing the sending of country children to the town schools and educating them away from the country.

3. *A richer social life* for the country children to be provided by the schools, teachers, and parents to relieve the drabness of their environment—realizing that boys and girls of the teen age are vastly more interested in their own social activities than they are in gainful occupation or scholastic attainments.

PROBLEMS OF THE RURAL TEACHER—ABSTRACT

SIMEON H. BING, DIRECTOR, CORRESPONDENCE STUDY, DIVISION OF EXTENSION, OHIO UNIVERSITY, ATHENS, OHIO

The one-room country school has been idealized among many people. It has been glorified in the poetry and song of the nation. It has been referred to as the bulwark of American democracy. In these days it has ceased to hold this high position. Dr. T. J. Coats in a circular letter from the U. S. Office of Education has given us a truism in regard to it. He says that "the average farmer and the rural teacher think of the rural school as a little house on a little ground with a little equipment where a little teacher with a little preparation for a little salary for a little while teaches little children little things."

In this epigram we have listed the outstanding problems of the rural teacher. There is no need to draw for this group a picture of one of our inadequate one-teacher rural schools. Such schools are all too numerous in Ohio, and I presume that some other states still have a few of them. In fact, almost two-thirds of our nation's country schools are still of this type.

A short while ago, a small group of persons in Ohio prepared for the Ohio State fair an exhibit of the equipment actually found in a one-teacher school. It was arranged just as it is commonly found. The unjacketed Burnside stove (Burnside is the name of the make, but it is quite descriptive) in the center of the floor, a coal scuttle near it, two rows of home-made desks or seats. A bench, very much like the mourner's bench in a country church of a century ago, was in front. It was called the recitation seat. The blackboard was made of two wide, smooth, painted boards mounted on two upright slats. There were torn blinds for some of the windows; a sort of a manikin which revealed all the mysteries of the human anatomy and yet most obscenely marked, and a small wash basin that had seen years of use. Also the inevitable drinking pail with a common dipper. There was neither chair nor desk for the teacher. The room was completed with a few nails in the wall for wraps and a shelf for the lunch baskets that the children brought from home. By the side of this exhibit, one of the school supply companies was pleased to equip an uptodate school. An attendant was placed in charge of the exhibit, and fair visitors were anxiously awaited. The reaction was very enlightening. Seventeen of the 88 counties in Ohio claimed the exhibit. Some of these were in wealthy sections of the state.

One day while the regular attendant was at lunch, the exhibit was left in charge of a young woman from our biggest city. A middle-aged woman came by and for quite a while she gazed intently, and then, Carrie Nation style, she came up pointing her finger at the young woman and said, "Where you from?" The young woman meekly said "Cleveland." "I knew it, I knew it," said the woman. "This is some more of you city people taking our poverty and holding it up to the ridicule of the wealthy city folks."

Last year, one of our most progressive cities was re-seating its schools. They proposed to give their equipment to any country school that would accept it. Real difficulty was met in finding any place that needed it.

The second problem of the rural teacher, perhaps first in importance, is the teacher herself. It is not a feeling of sex superiority that induces the use of the feminine here. The Ohio Legislature calls its teacher members "old maid school teachers." As I see it, about three classes of persons are engaged in teaching the one-room rural schools. First, there is the young woman who has barely reached the minimum age and preparation required by law. Second, the married woman who desires to earn a little pin money. Third, the jolly old pedagog who is merely waiting for retirement age when he can draw his pension. Occasionally we find a fourth class represented by that rare soul who is devoting all her life to advancement of rural teaching. She "lures to brighter worlds and leads the way." Of the three classes, the first is most hopeful. In this group are almost one half of our rural teachers, and one-third of all have not even graduated from high school.

But even at that, these young people, although their training may be barely the legal requirement do furnish the possibilities for the future advancement of rural schools. Their wholesome attitude toward life and their almost automatic and accurate response to a difficult situation makes them extremely valuable. That they are accepted with so little preparation cannot be charged to them so much as to the inferiority complex that is common among country people and is suggested in the quotation above from Dr. Coats.

This same inferiority complex is responsible also for the transiency of the rural teacher and for the low salaries paid to her in comparison with her city contemporary. The teacher turnover in many counties is often more than fifty percent each year. These are drawn away by the more attractive offers of the city. By actual count, six sparsely populated rural counties in southern Ohio have furnished more than one thousand teachers in ten years to good positions in the larger communities of this state alone.

The salary is little! Some states have safeguarded the teacher against the action of the little community by passing minimum salary laws. The last word I have from Wisconsin puts their minimum at $60 per month. In West Va., it is $75, $60, and $45 according to the grade certificate. In Ohio it is $100 a month for 8 months. Twelve percent of all rural teachers in the United States receive less than $500 per year, and the average for teachers of one-room schools is $755.

Politics also enters into this problem of satisfactory teachers for rural schools—not party politics so much as school politics. One county superintendent elected a feeble-minded man on the board of education. Another requires his teachers to pay one percent of their salaries into a county fund. In many cases, "the old man" teacher and the "tramp" teacher do the work of "ward heeler" and by such means hold their places. They are supported by certain forces within the cities who continue to howl about the increasing cost of education, such as the "Sanctified Squander" crowd of Cleveland with Mr. John Walsh as the president and Miss Edna K. Wooley of the *Cleveland News* as chief "last worder."

In this little one-room country school, taught by this little teacher, there are more than ten million little children of America, or about one-third of our total school population including students of high school, college, and university. These little children represent the third problem of the rural teacher. But this rural teacher has never descended to the scale of that college professor who said: "This college job would be all right if it were not for the damned students."

These rural children, in Ohio at least, show a larger percent of retardation as well as a larger percent of those who are under age than does either the city or village group. And here is the greatest problem of all. Granted that retardation is partly the fault of the inefficient schools, it may also be the result of heredity. But we are not so much interested in causes as we are in conditions. The teacher must take the child where she finds him. The

Master Teacher not only took them where he found them—he could also see their possibilities.

What shall this rural teacher do with Mary, who has an intelligence quotient of 130, but whose companions in this rural school range from 60 to 90? Her case is well presented in "County Schools—New Style," a timely article in the June issue of *Survey Graphic* by Lorine Pruette, psychologist and educator. But there are many localities still that are not blessed with such a splendid organization as "The Southern Woman's Educational Alliance."

Mary is often the most neglected child in the rural school. She is left to shift for herself. She easily satisfies all the requirements of the meager curriculum. Or if state-wide scholarship tests are maintained, as in Ohio, often all the rest of the children are put aside, and the teaching becomes a process of coaching Mary for the examination. She alone can bring honor to the school, the county, and the county superintendent. She is the queen bee and all the hive must do her honor! And often with what sad social results.

Perhaps the recognition of individual differences in children is the greatest advancement that modern education has made. At the same time, it presents the greatest problem of rural teaching. For the country school teacher finds herself in dire need of some cooperating social agency similar to those that may be appealed to by her city coworkers.

What shall she do with that "no-count Slocum kid"? Or with Fanny who is "just contrary"? Or with "wild, dissolute Tim"? Or run-away Buster? Or with Clem, whose exploiter father believes that children should work? Or Millie who is just queer? Or those Riley boys, Jake with his blinking eye, and Slim with his projecting teeth, both of whom just hate school?[1]

If only all of our states were up to the lead of Alabama or North Carolina in social legislation, then one cooperating social organization might be found that would in a measure support the work attempted by the rural teacher. But, here is one of her biggest problems, for in a majority of cases there is no such agency to which the rural teacher may appeal.

Dr. William Ogburn in his splendid volume on *Social Change* develops the theory of "social lag." He shows that public institutions are very much inclined to lag behind the world of invention and even behind the advancement of the business or economic world. Such an institution as a public school does not go into bankruptcy if it lags; a business man does. So true is this that we are forced to an agreement with Dr. Cubberley who sometime ago declared that the rural school of today is farther behind the city school of today than it was thirty years ago.

Now I have finished the easiest part of my task. How very easy it is to find the flaws, but how very difficult to discover a remedy. However, in this connection I would like to make one or two proposals.

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[1] The story of these and others is told in that charming little book by Agnes Benedict, *Children at the Crossroads,* published by the Commonwealth Fund. This book relates the experiences of rural visiting teachers in Huron County, Ohio, Boone County, Missouri, and Monmouth County, N. J.

First, we might follow the lead of some who find the situation so very easy. Dr. M. P. Shawkey, President of Marshall College, Huntington, W. Va., would solve the problem by entirely eliminating the country school. At a meeting of governing bodies of various schools and colleges he recently proposed that rather than establish better schools in the rural sections, the rural residents be encouraged to move to the cities and towns where better schools would be available. Four years ago, at the convention of the National Education Association in Philadelphia, I heard the director of education in New Jersey take a similar attitude when he refused to recognize the fact that there is a rural problem at all. Miss Breckinridge of the Graduate School of Social Work at the University of Chicago, holds that a person well trained in social work is well trained for any environment. We know that this is the way many problems are approached and this attitude accounts for the social lag in many rural communities.

There are others who believe there are real problems and they are attempting conscientiously to solve them in a practical manner.

Consolidation is suggested as a cure-all. But we need some progress even here. In Ohio, we started with the old centralization scheme in which the consolidation was required to follow township lines. Later we gave it over to the control of the county board of education. They can create districts that have natural boundaries, even though the territory may lie in two or more townships. Now we need to follow the lead of a southern state—North Carolina—and require that no part of any county may be consolidated until the entire county is provided for, thus eliminating isolated areas that are doomed. Much speed is being made in Ohio in this matter, but our "young" gray-haired supervisor of rural education will have to live more than fifteen years longer and maintain his record of the last twelve years of eliminating one one-room school each day, if he secures the consolidation of all rural Ohio.

Even now there is a considerable sentiment in favor of making the districts larger and larger in the name of economy in school expense. I trust we may reach the time when the importance of youth may rise to the level of the interest on our bonds.

Another suggestion is seen in the recent activity in the state of Vermont where a campaign has been staged for the improvement of the one-room school. What success has been reached, I am not informed, but at least the proposition sounds good. I have seen very few well-built one-room schools in Ohio. I know a man who claims to have visited 3900 one-room schools in a trip through more than twenty states. He told us that there were ash piles in front of more than 2000 of them. There is, in many places, a serious lack of local interest. But neglect of one-room schools may be due also to certain ambitious superintendents who knowingly overlook this problem in the hope that they may bring to themselves greater glory in a scheme for consolidation. To such localities we have one suggestion—namely, "Try to get President Hoover to come fishing or hunting in your community some week-end." At least, such a plan seems to have been the salvation of one small community in Virginia.

Our last suggestion for the solution of our problem of rural teachers is as follows: Supply to the rural teacher a minimum of cooperative social work in one of two ways. Provide a higher type of attendance officer—one who has had training in social work and an educational training equal to the minimum requirements for certification as a teacher; or provide that each rural community or supervision area shall have at least one visiting teacher who may also act as attendance supervisor or director of child accounting for the area. I know that the National Association of Visiting Teachers opposes the addition of attendance work to their duties, and I do not advocate it in the name of economy, but only in the spirit of compromise. It will take too long to get any legislature to grant both.

My last suggestion is to require more thorough preparation on the part of those who would enter the profession of classroom teacher—such preparation as recognizes the reality of a distinct rural problem.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session, Tuesday Afternoon, July 1, 1930

The first session of the Department of Classroom Teachers was held at Memorial Hall, Columbus, Ohio, on Tuesday afternoon, July 1, at 2 oclock. The meeting was called to order by the president, Eula F. Hunter. The following program was presented, after which the assembly divided into four discussion groups:

MUSIC—Junior High School Chorus of Columbus
  Speed Our Republic........................Mathias Keller
  The Home Road..............................John Alden Carpenter
SELFGOVERNMENT AND SELFMASTERY
  Florence E. Allen, Judge of the Supreme Court of Ohio, Cleveland, Ohio.

The group programs were as follows:

Discussion Group A—Elementary Education

Presiding, Frances E. Harden, Middle Section Regional Director of the Department, Chicago, Ill.

ADDRESS
  Laura Zirbes, Associate Professor of Principles of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
DISCUSSION
  Leaders:
  Christine Jacobsen, Teacher, Los Angeles, Calif.
  Anise Slattery, Teacher, Chicago, Ill.

Discussion Group B—High School

An Appraisal of Agencies for the Development in Service of High-school Teachers

Presiding, Sara H. Fahey, Eastern Regional Director of the Department, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Chairman, Kate V. Anthony, Teacher of English, Binford Junior High School, Richmond, Va.

EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Cornelia S. Adair, Teacher, Bainbridge Junior High School, Richmond, Va.; Former President of the National Education Association

MERITS AND WEAKNESSES OF COLLEGE SUMMER SCHOOLS, AND OTHER CULTURAL AGENCIES

Mary R. Barnette, Teacher of English, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio

DISCUSSION
Leader: Frank W. Mayo, Principal, Shelton High School, Shelton. Conn.

Discussion Group C—Rural Education

Presiding, Faye Read, Secretary of the Department, Pueblo, Colo.

PROBLEMS OF THE RURAL TEACHER
Simeon H. Bing, Director, Correspondence Study Division of Extension, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio
DISCUSSION
Leader: Charles L. Syron, Vicepresident, Dallas Classroom Teachers Association, Dallas, Texas

Discussion Group D—Special Class Teachers

Presiding, James P. Barron, Vicepresident of the Department, Atlanta, Ga.
Chairman, Annie Mary Fuller, Atlanta, Ga.
SPECIAL EDUCATION AS A NEW DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
Edgar A. Doll, Director, Department of Research, Training School, Vineland, N. J.

Section for Teachers of Adolescent Children

TEXTBOOKS FOR THE MENTALLY DEFICIENT CHILD
SECURING EMPLOYMENT FOR THE MENTALLY DEFICIENT CHILD
Discussion led by Mrs. Alice L. Bosch, Chairman of Adjustment Group, Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio

Section for Teachers of Elementary School Children

TEXTBOOKS FOR THE ELEMENTARY SPECIAL CLASSES
Discussion led by Christine A. Ringle, Supervisor of Special Classes, Public Schools, Cleveland, Ohio

The Special Class Teachers held a breakfast Wednesday, July 2, 7:00 a.m., on the roof of the Broad-Lincoln Restaurant with C. A. Pollock, Director of Special Classes, Columbus, presiding. Sara Holbrook, Assistant Professor of Education at the University of Vermont, Burlington, discussed "Allies in Making Good Citizens—The Visiting Teacher and the Special Class Teacher."

Editorial Conference

A conference for editors of publications of local classroom teachers' organizations and others interested was held on Wednesday evening, July 2, at the Neil House. Miriam D. Eisner, Western Regional Director, acted as chairman and Mrs. Viola S. Kelley, Editor, *San Francisco Teachers Bulletin,* led the discussion.

Second Session, Thursday Afternoon, July 3, 1930

The business meeting was called to order by the president, Eula F. Hunter, on Thursday afternoon, July 3, at 2 oclock at Memorial Hall. Miss Hunter made brief announcements regarding the dinner to be held that evening and the Fifth Yearbook, copies of which were distributed at the end of the session.

Ola E. Boyles, president of the Amarillo, Texas, Teachers Club, presented Miss Hunter with a gavel to show appreciation of the assistance she had given in organizing the group and in helping them with their professional program. In accepting the gavel Miss Hunter said in part: "I know of no organization which has accomplished so much in so brief a period of time as one year, and I especially appreciate this gift because I cannot understand how they could afford to cut down a rare tree in western Texas to make a gavel."

The first order of business was the reports of officers and regional directors, which were very brief inasmuch as detailed reports appear in the Fifth Yearbook.

The next order of business was the election of officers for the ensuing year 1930-31. The president appointed Rush M. Caldwell of Dallas and Susan Scully of Chicago as tellers.

Miriam D. Eisner, San Francisco, Calif., was nominated for president and unanimously elected.

Nominations for vicepresident were: Esther Helbig, Dubuque, Iowa, and Lucille Marsh, Sioux City, Iowa. Miss Helbig was elected.

Florence M. Dickinson, Camden, N. J., was nominated for secretary and unanimously elected.

Faye Read, Pueblo, Colo., was nominated for western regional director and unanimously elected.

Mrs. Edith B. Joynes past president of the Department, gave an informal report of the work of the National Advisory Committee on Education of which she is a member.

Miss Hunter called attention to her report in the Fifth Yearbook and discussed briefly her recommendations to the Department which are as follows:

Recommendations to the Department of Classroom Teachers

1. *Yearbook*—(a) That a committee be appointed to plan each yearbook several years in advance of the date of its publication, and (b) that the yearbook be given over to the report of specific studies which have been scientifically made.

2. *News Bulletin*—That the *News Bulletin* be published four times during each school year, the approximate dates of publication being October 1, December 1, February 1, and May 1.

3. *Budget*—That an effort be made to increase the budget of the Department either through added appropriation from the National Education Association, or by a separate fee for Department membership.

4. *Research Committee*—(a) That a research committee be appointed to select problems on which research should be made from the classroom teacher's viewpoint, and (b) that this committee report its findings to the Department and to the Research Division of the National Education Association.

5. *Regional Conferences*—That the number of regional conferences held by the Department officers be increased by making use of that clause in the constitution which makes it possible for past officers to conduct such conferences.

6. *Programs of State Associations*—That greater effort be made to have classroom teachers on state programs.

7. *Finance Committee*—(a) That a finance committee be appointed from among the members of the Executive Committee to assist the president in budgeting the funds of the Department, and (b) that the membership of this committee shall consist of officers and regional directors.

Financial Needs of the Department

Recommended by EULA F. HUNTER, *President*

Proposed Budget for 1930-31

1. Partime for president		$850
2. Regional conferences, including travel and hotel expenses		2,750
3. Convention expenses, including travel, hotel, etc.		2,750
4. Office expense—supplies, clerical help, miscellaneous		850
5. Research		2,800
6. Printing		2,000
Bulletin	$600	
Yearbook	1,200	
Miscellaneous	200	
Total		$12,000

In the absence of Nell E. Lain of Chicago, chairman of the Resolutions Committee, the report was given by Christine Jacobsen of Los Angeles. After discussion the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolutions

Entrance requirements: We re-affirm our support of higher requirements for certification of teachers in order to raise the professional status of the classroom teacher and to improve the teaching service.

Tenure: We favor a sound tenure law which provides for an indefinite tenure following a probationary period.

Rating: In order that improvement in service may result from ratings by supervisors, principals, and others, we recommend that every teacher be given a duplicate copy of his rating sheet. We are opposed to the practise of rating as a basis for salary.

Convention attendance: Because of the vital importance to the classroom teacher of convention attendance, we call the attention of directors of summer schools for teachers and of summer sessions of colleges and universities to the value of so arranging their work as not to deprive their students of the opportunity of attending the meetings of the National Education Association.

Education Bill: We endorse the establishment of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet and the efficient integration of the educational activities of the Federal Government in this department.

Professional improvement: We approve of the efforts to eliminate as nearly as possible the use of the time of a professionally trained teacher for making mechanical tabulations that could be well done by a less highly trained worker and to emphasize the spending of more time on professional work. More recognition should be allowed for achievement and more freedom given in the selection of work done for professional self-improvement so that narrow college requirements leading to degrees should not limit the training by requiring experienced teachers to study subjects unrelated to their work and uninteresting to them. This is not meant to curtail the broadening influence of a wide educational training.

Professional spirit: We support the development of a professional spirit encouraging greater participation by teachers in teacher organization work.

Law enforcement: We recommend that the classroom teachers of America make a greater effort to inculcate respect for the law and order in the minds of our youth and that the spirit of law observance should be fostered in the schools.

News Bulletin: We approve of the News Bulletin as a means of conveying to classroom teachers items of professional interest and problems requiring their attention. We suggest that the number of issues be increased and that an improved plan for distribution be formulated.

The Journal of the N. E. A.: We express our appreciation to *The Journal of the N. E. A.* for the attention which it has given to the problems of classroom teachers.

Salary schedule: We approve the principle of single salary schedule for all classroom teachers.

Teacher participation: We favor a plan of real teacher participation in which all teachers have equal opportunity to assist in formulating school policies.

Retirement: We endorse legislation providing for a just and fair retirement of teachers, a retirement in which the state participates with the teacher.

World peace: We favor a definite program for the promotion of World Peace.

Sabbatical leave: We believe that the best interests of the pupils in our public schools will be served by granting teachers a leave of absence periodically for study and travel.

Courtesy: We wish to express our heartiest appreciation to the teacher organizations of Columbus, of Cincinnati, and of other communities, whose efforts contributed so greatly to our comfort and pleasure during this most successful convention. We wish to extend our thanks to Governor Myers Cooper and Mayor John Thomas for their courtesies, the press for its splendid publicity, the hotels for their excellent service, the Boy Scouts, the school children, and everyone else who contributed to the success of this convention.

Printing of resolutions: We recommend that a number of copies of these resolutions be sent to each affiliated organization, and we request that they be printed in publication of state teachers' associations.

An announcement was made by Miss Winn and cards were passed out with reference to securing copies of the Fifth Yearbook at this session or having copies sent from the headquarters office. One hundred and fifty copies were distributed at the meeting and requests were filed by seventy teachers for copies to be mailed to them.

A motion made by Miss Fahey was seconded and carried to the effect that the Department record in the minutes its appreciation of the service that Miss Hunter has rendered by her long service as a regional director and her most efficient service as president; also that we record appreciation of the service given by Mr. Barron as vicepresident and congratulate him on his new work as a principal.

The meeting adjourned.

Annual Dinner, Thursday Evening, July 3, 1930

The annual dinner was held Thursday evening, July 3, at 6 oclock at the Neil House, with more than eight hundred in attendance. Miss Hunter introduced various distinguished persons connected with the Classroom Department and other branches of the profession. After a short musical program the principal address was given by John G. Neihardt, literary editor of the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch,* and poet.

Department of Deans of Women

THE DEPARTMENT OF DEANS OF WOMEN (National Association of Deans of Women) associated itself with the National Education Association in 1918. Its meeting is first reported in *Proceedings*, 1918:391-417.

The officers of the Department for the year 1929-30 are: *President*, Thyrsa W. Amos, Dean of Women, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.; *First Vicepresident*, Jessie Gibson, Dean of Women, Pomona College, Claremont, Calif.; *Second Vicepresident*, Dorothy Stimson, President, Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.; *Secretary*, Floy Elliot, Dean of Girls, Central High School, Tulsa, Okla.; *Treasurer*, Lydia I. Jones, Dean of Women, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.; *Headquarters Secretary*, Gwladys W. Jones, 1634 Eye St., Washington, D. C.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and records of its meetings will be found in earlier *Proceedings*, as follows:

1918:391-417
1919:393-426
1920:357-364
1921:407-420
1922:693-793
1923:621-636
1924:500-536
1925:403-449
1926:423-457
1927:391-418
1928:353-374
1929:369-390

THE EMOTIONAL FACTOR IN HUMAN ADJUSTMENT

ENGLISH BAGLEY, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF PSYCHOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA, CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

IT IS easy to understand the quandary in which the average dean of women finds herself in these troublesome times. With problems of inadequate behavior arising with each day's work, she is forced into an essentially futile search for guidance. On the one hand turning to the conventional academic psychology, she finds a discussion of only a limited range of psychological phenomena. A great many of the most important types of mental processes cannot be successfully brought under observation under the highly artificial conditions which necessarily prevail in a psychological laboratory. For this reason, these matters do not receive more than passing attention in a college textbook. On the other hand, when the dean turns to Freudianism and the other medical psychologies, she encounters a fantastic presentation of the grossly abnormal. It is really difficult to find a systematic discussion of the mild emotional disorders of normal young women.

It is interesting to note, however, that the deans of women are continuing their attack on their psychological problems in the face of discouragement. Having already given due consideration to intelligence as it relates to undergraduate adjustment, they are prepared to consider another of the primary factors upon which the quality of undergraduate behavior depends—emotional reactions.

In this brief series of lectures it is going to be necessary to limit somewhat the field of discussion and, as a particular type of emotional process—worry—is the most common basis of maladjustment, this topic is selected for special emphasis.

Encountering emotional situations—From time to time every active individual encounters situations which give rise to emotional tensions of fear, rage, and sex. Usually these situations are quite fleeting and involve no serious consequences for the future. Although a rather intense fear response may be made to a near-accident in an automobile, no action need be taken. The situation itself is fleeting and, after it has passed, the emotional state usually disappears quite promptly. Under such circumstances it cannot be said that the experience has any serious effect on the efficiency of the individual. It is never from experiences of the sort just described that undergraduate maladjustment proceeds. Rather, there must be a problem and a persisting emotional process, or mood. To give definite meaning to this statement it is necessary to resort to an illustrative case.

An emotional problem—A certain undergraduate student found that her financial situation was becoming so acute that she must interrupt her college course. Through influence she secure a very dignified secretarial position in her home town and undertook the support of her widowed mother. Unfortunately, at the end of the first month she was discharged without explanation. She immediately secured another similar position and, at the end of the second month, she was again discharged. Her second dismissal gave rise to a typical mood of worry, or persisting state of fear. Promptly she reached the conclusion that she probably did not have the capacity to hold a secretarial position but must seek employment of a simpler sort. Such action, however, was blocked by her realization that her income would be reduced and that it would no longer be possible to support her mother. This, in turn, meant that her mother would have to go to the home of an unsympathetic and belligerent uncle.

The young lady thus found herself in a typical worry mood. There had arisen in her life a problem for which she was unable to find a solution. That is, she could think of no plan of action by which she could modify the fear-arousing situation which had developed in her life.

Such is a typical mood. A problem gives rise to an emotional tension and to thinking. The thinking, which relates to consequences and to inacceptable plans, serves to maintain and reinforce the tension. The tension, on its part, maintains the futile thinking. Thus, a problem may set into operation a circular type of process through which a state of emotion is caused to function almost indefinitely. Also, it is from such persisting emotional processes that most serious emotional maladjustments ensue.

It has been shown how the young lady, whose affairs are under discussion, had developed a potentially serious mood of fear. It happened, however, that she had two admirable traits of personality which determined that her problem should have nothing more than a temporarily disturbing effect on her efficiency. She had a fixed tendency of facing the problems of her life frankly and of seeking competent advice and assistance in emergencies. Consequently, she did not rationalize to the effect that she had been unfairly treated by her former employers. She simply accepted the fact that her work had been unsatisfactory. She then formulated the plan of asking the gentlemen who had discharged her to give her constructive criticism. From these interviews she learned that her chief defects were an untidy personal appearance and a somewhat too terse and ungracious way of speaking to customers of the two firms. With this information she went to a clinical psychologist and submitted to an intelligence test which revealed the fact that she had the capacity to do secretarial work. She was advised to master her faults and get a new position. Her professional work for the last six months has been extremely successful. So, a young woman threatened with maladjustment extricated herself from her difficulty.

In making a psychological analysis of this case, two general facts of primary importance stand out. In the first place, serious emotional problems may arise because of a defect in the behavior of an individual, the defect actually creating the problem and the resulting state of emotion. In the second place, the problem, or emotional emergency, which arises may be solved if the individual thinks frankly about it and seeks such assistance as is indicated. *In short, this is the obligation of the psychological adviser to women:—First, to train students to organize their conduct in such a way that few emotional emergencies arise. And, secondly, to train students to face* *their emotional emergencies with frank thinking and the seeking of competent guidance.*

Locked-in with emotion—At this point it becomes necessary to consider an instance of actual maladjustment. It will be noticed that the undergraduate involved is "locked-in with emotion." That is, she fails to take any steps to secure a solution of her emotional problem. The result is the development of a persistent state of tension and a maladjustment.

A certain young woman came from a Puritan home to attend a typical American university. Because her parents were timid, they refused to permit her to live in the dormitories but had her enter the home of a professor. In a short time the relations within the household became rather intimate and the professor's interest in the student became rather more than platonic. She naively accepted his attentions. It was not the custom to lock the doors within the house and one evening an unfortunate experience came to the girl. She did not protect herself from the man by screaming. If she screamed, it would be necessary for her to leave the home and then she would have to give an explanation to her parents. They would certainly censure her for having permitted the intimacy to develop and she was afraid. It was not in her to lie.

Naturally, the result of this episode was a very intense mood of worry. Not only was there the immediate consideration of a possible pregnancy but, also, the future held disturbing consequences. Although she had a normal interest in men and, from her childhood, had hoped for a home and children, she did not see the possibility of marriage. She was unwilling to marry without telling the man her pathetic story and she did not believe that any decent man would marry her under the circumstances. It occurred to her that she might demand that her betrayer secure his freedom by divorce but this idea was rejected because of her pity for his wife. Thus, she was locked in with a mood of worry and her only action was finally to secure a position in a country school for girls where she might control her inclination for the companionship of men. This has not served to eliminate or seriously modify her problem. However, it is not accurate to say that her emotional tension is continuously in operation. Whenever she becomes thoroughly absorbed in her teaching or some other duty, a period of relief from tension comes to her. But so many of the situations of her daily life suggest to her her difficulty, that the emotional state is constantly being rearoused. The greater part of each day she is exhibiting the characteristic effects of a profound worry mood.

Consequences of persisting emotional processes—Any mood of long duration, whether the basal emotion be fear, rage, or sex excitement, produces the psychological phenomena presently to be described. It will be noticed that these phenomena are of such a character as to interfere with any complex intellectual activity, including study. Therefore, when a conscientious student of adequate intelligence begins to show a rapid deterioration in scholarship, it is natural to suspect that some sort of emotional difficulty has arisen in her life. This may not prove to be the case, since illness or other special conditions may be the cause. The possibility of a mood will certainly have to be considered, nevertheless.

The mental effects of moods may be listed with brief comments, as follows:

1. *Restlessness*—There is a tendency to be unable to remain at one's task. Typically, the individual finds it necessary to stop work frequently—to go for water, to visit a neighboring dormitory room on errands which could readily be postponed, and so forth.
2. *Inability to concentrate*—It is difficult to keep the attention fixed on a textbook or on a subject of conversation. Sources of distraction, which might ordinarily be ignored, have a very disquieting effect, and especially slight noises.
3. *Irritability*—Although an individual may normally be quite even-tempered, under the influence of any sufficiently intense emotional state, she is likely to exhibit tantrum reactions on slight provocation.

   This particular effect is especially serious for the violence of rage is apt to create social difficulties which complicate still further the primary problem of the individual.
4. *Digestive disorder*—An invariable feature of every emotional reaction is at least a partial inhibition of the glandular and muscular activities of digestion. Fleeting states of excitement are, of course, of no real importance in this respect, but a long continued interruption of digestion is disabling.
5. *Diffusion*—Emotional states are marked by almost ceaseless minor movements of all the members of the body. Such random activity, commonly known as "nervousness," often takes the form of tapping with the foot and fingernail-biting. Such diffusion is not diagnostic of emotion for it is continuously present in some persons on an hereditary basis.

The five types of phenomena described above when occurring in combination constitute a fairly reliable indication of the existence of a disturbing mood. It is not unusual, however, to find one or more of them absent.

The problem of rapport—As a preliminary to treatment in any case of emotional disorder of the "mood" type, it is necessary to secure from the student some statement of her problem and the various experiences and thoughts relating to it. To secure this information is by no means easy. In almost every instance, the problem is a very intimate personal matter and there is an inhibition about discussing it.

The young woman who had the disastrous experience with the professor did not come to a consulting psychologist with the intention of revealing her pitiful story. She came merely because she felt that she needed assistance in connection with her college duties. Finding that she was having difficulty in concentrating her attention upon the preparation of the school subjects which she was teaching, she did not realize that this disorder of attention was functionally related to her emotional problem. The psychologist, suspecting the existence of some difficulty of the sort, promptly requested her to give something of her history. She experienced a difficulty in discussing some phases of her life story and penetrating questions finally brought out the facts. Even so, it is true that the student would not have made a complete statement, had no thoroughgoing rapport existed between the two persons who were conversing.

There is always the greatest resistance to reporting facts which reflect discredit on the self. There is an inevitable necessity of developing a very special relationship between counselor and counselee so that inhibitions will not arise to interfere with the program of guidance and training. The resistance must be made to yield to rapport. Hence, it is obvious that any adviser, to be effective in giving psychological guidance, must have the ability to establish and maintain very intimate and confidential relations. This is extremely difficult for a dean who is usually a disciplinarian and always the custodian of the morals of the student body. It is essential then for the dean to cultivate the reputation of being able to distinguish between disciplinary and "problem" cases. She must be known to have an attitude of ethical tolerance toward girls in distress and such an attitude cannot be simulated. It is necessary for the dean to be actively interested in all varieties of undergraduate affairs, to become a decidedly human being. She should become familiar with undergraduate opinion through constant, unofficial contact with all sorts of undergraduates. Most important of all, she should never discuss a single problem case, in public or in private, even in relation to students who have graduated in long years past.

To a degree the capacity to elicit confidences is a gift of personal appearance and manner. It can be acquired to only a certain extent but it can never be acquired by a person who views the undergraduate of today from the rigid moral attitude of a matured, thoughtful adult.

The modern undergraduate sex situation—It is entirely possible that in these lectures entirely too much emphasis is being placed on moods of fear. Sex moods, also, may be persistent and may produce all of the disabling mental and behavior traits which have been described as arising from states of worry. Some comment on sex emotion as a factor in undergraduate maladjustment seems in order.

In recent years there has developed among college students a new set of mores relating to sex. The prevailing attitude has been described as "experimental" and needs no further characterization. As is well recognized, there is a definite social problem which has its origin in the fact that members of the human species arrive at sexual maturity many years before the age of economic independence and marriage. That the Victorian practice of repression was a somewhat inadequate solution is unquestioned. Especially it has been contended that complete premarital repression has the effect of interfering with the adequate sex adjustment of women in marriage. On the other hand, it is certain that the modern "experimental" method is equally unsatisfactory. There are three primary difficulties, which may be summarized as follows:

1. There is a common variety of intimate behavior, known as flirtage, which serves to arouse a high degree of excitement. This practise, unlike normal sex behavior, does not eliminate or seriously reduce the tensions to which it gives

rise. Usually, indeed, it creates typical moods which involve an interference with study and other routine tasks.

2. In some young women the modern spirit has reached the point of removing inhibitions from definite relationships. In the majority of cases which have received psychological attention, this "freedom" serves merely to exchange a sex tension for a tension of fear. The girl tends to develop fears of pregnancy, an uncertainty as to her marriageability, and an inferiority reaction to social disapproval.

   Much is being said now of the sophistication of modern youth. If this implies nothing more than an ability to write a volume or two on special phases of sex, the idea may be accepted. However sophisticated young women may be in these times, few there are who are "emotionally emancipated." Their freedom is purchased with a great price—of fear.
3. For the few modern women who are emotionally emancipated the present mores are not really satisfactory. Premarital sex relationships are of necessity merely occasional, acting primarily to awaken the sex drives. A girl, under the circumstances, has more of a problem of tension than if complete restraint had prevailed. It has recently been pointed out by Havelock Ellis that an adequate sex adjustment can only be achieved by two persons who are continuously together and have numerous bonds of common interests. It may be said that this is hardly in the class of novel ideas.

A complete case history—It is now appropriate to present a complete case history which will introduce the whole problem of the most common form of emotional maladjustment. The disorder must be seen in all of its complexity and the technic of treatment must be described in detail. For the purpose the case of an undergraduate man is selected. The study of a man's reaction is unfortunate in a way, since our interest is centered for the time in girls. However, the behavior and thinking processes displayed in this instance are thoroughly typical of both sexes and lend themselves to especially easy exposition.

A young man had been suffering from a compulsion to gnaw the surface of his right hand. At the time of seeking assistance, he displayed a large callous area. Now, it must be pointed out that a consulting psychologist does not undertake to treat an individual simply because he is exhibiting an untypical trait. For this reason, it was important to discover whether the hand-biting entailed serious consequences. This proved to be the case. The youth was keeping his hand in his pocket whenever he was with his friends. This was likely to create a suspicion that he was pathological and he would find it necessary to face a difficult social attitude. In the second place, because of his embarrassment about his habit of hand-biting, he was beginning to restrict his social contacts. This would mean an unfortunate reduction in his necessary recreational activities.

It was, accordingly, decided to undertake treatment and the young man was required to apply acid to his callous frequently during each day. Before the end of the week he appeared at the laboratory to report that his habit had completely disappeared. But, in the course of the conversation it developed that within the two preceding days he had begun to be disturbed by what he described—accurately—as very silly moral problems. Of these two may profitably be considered.

He had been walking on a street in a certain college town and had noticed that he was followed by a particular student acquaintance. Looking ahead, he espied a singularly unattractive undergraduate whom he also knew. This thought came to him: "Should a young Christian man be a friend to disliked persons or should he walk with attractive men in order through the contact to develop his own personality and consequently his effectiveness in Christian work." He hastened to walk with the outcast and was passed shortly by the other student, who did not extend a very cordial greeting. The patient went to his room troubled and did not sleep at all during the following night, being beset by the fear that his decision was not ethically correct.

The hand-biter was also troubled about his obligation in the matter of neckties: "Should he wear old somber ones which might bring comfort to his poorer acquaintances or should he wear resplendent ties which would appeal to important men and cause them to seek his companionship? He might so develop his personality and consequently his effectiveness in Christian work."

It is important to pause now in the recital of this case to point out that if this visit had been the patient's first interview with the psychologist his symptom would have been merely a disturbing mood. However, the patient's explanation of his persisting emotional state was not at the moment in the focus of his attention. Ostensibly only was he disturbed about neckties and such things. As will soon appear, he had another reason for uneasiness. Such a displacement of emotion from a real problem to an apparent one is known as "emotional transference." The operation of a process of this sort is often a source of great difficulty to an adviser of women.

Three days later the patient came again to see the psychologist and reported that his period of moral upset had passed and he displayed the back of his right hand, which was found to be rapidly healing. However, it was observed that he had begun to gnaw his *left* hand.

The psychological phenomena which have been described are a clear indication that in some way hand-biting and the mood of worry were functionally related. Clearly, when the mood is present, the hand-biting is not; and when the hand-biting occurs, the mood passes. It is also clear that the acid technic is the treatment of a symptom and in no way reaches the real nucleus of the existing disorder. It, therefore, was considered necessary to undertake to unravel the details of the patient's emotional history.

After a period of systematic questioning it was found that the young man had redeveloped the hand-biting compulsion after an interval of approximately seven years. The story of the earlier occurrence of the habit proved interesting. The patient had been lying ill with measles and had begun to think with considerable tension of some sexual misconduct which he had a short time previously displayed. Ordinarily, he would have sought relief from his disturbance through the distraction of reading or playing with his friends. This was impossible because of his illness, but, as he reported: "I found that if I bit my hand, I did not think about the sex matter."

The process which has just been described is known as repression. Individuals who are locked in with emotion regularly develop some device, a repression activity, which, though falling short of solving their problem, does serve to interrupt the thinking feature of the mood. This permits the passing of the high tension and affords occasional periods of relief.

From the information which had already been secured it appeared likely that the patient, having become an undergraduate, had confronted a new sex problem and, falling back on an old-established repression device, was with this controlling a disturbing mood. Confronted with this opinion, he ultimately revealed the central problem of his life. The hand-biter was engaged to be married and, acting under the modern spirit, had become somewhat too intimate with his fiancee without establishing definite sex relations. Furthermore, he had lost interest in the young lady, but, believing her compromised in a sense, he found himself facing the very unpleasant necessity of marrying her. His thoughts about the matter and his mood were regularly interrupted by the hand-biting habit. When this device became unavailable, because of the acid, he substituted for it another method of repression—a preoccupation with moral problems of a very minor character.

After the whole psychological situation had been made clear to the patient, he was urged to speak frankly to his fiancee. The young lady in the case immediately expressed a similar disinclination to marry. The patient then lost all of his symptoms and was prepared to discontinue his visits to the psychologist's office.

It should be pointed out that in no sense was the hand-biter "cured." Merely a single emotional episode had passed from his life. He had still in his personality several very disabling traits. For one thing, it was not his practise to plan his conduct with intelligent foresight and it was this defect which had created not simply the one but many other emergencies. In the second place, he did not have the habit of meeting his emergencies with frank thinking and the seeking of competent advice and assistance. Before being discharged as cured he needed a great deal of fundamental retraining. Under the guidance of the consulting psychologist he was led to foresee many potential difficulties in the future of his life and he was required to perfect plans of meeting them. It was also possible to discover many problems, mostly of a minor sort, to which he was not reacting in an effective way. He was persuaded to think his way through to a solution of all of these. After this thorough course of retraining he was dismissed—another man, indeed.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR CHARACTER EDUCATION

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I understand that you are all members of faculties of teacher-training institutions. Character education is not the least of the types of work for which your institutions are training teachers. Indeed, many would say that development of character is the highest and most fundamental purpose of the schools. On account of your positions as deans of women, you have a particular interest in matters relating to character, and you have an unusual opportunity to influence the conduct and the thinking of the students at your institutions.

I wish to propose four main points or generalizations regarding character education. In addition, I want to suggest some of the implications of these points for the training of teachers. The points are: (1) the magnitude—the inclusiveness—of character education; (2) the specificness of character traits under present conditions; (3) the significance of every contact of teacher and pupil; (4) the need for conscious, direct planning of the program of character education.

Whenever I think of character education I am impressed with the rapidly widening range of the items included under character education. The objectives of character education may be summed up in the phrase, right human relations, but the meaning of this phrase is being extended continually. Such relations depend upon an understanding of the elements involved in all one's relations to himself and to others, the power and the will to choose wisely in situations involving human relationships, and the unison of understanding with power of choice in an integrated personality which is organized consistently around a basic scheme of values.

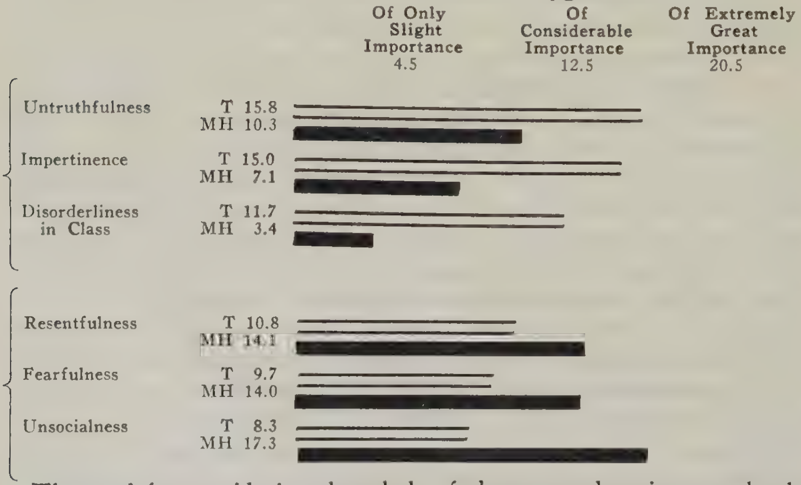
The increasing diversity in the character qualities which are necessary in the complex life of today may be illustrated by the contrast (Figure 1) between the farm community in Jackson County, Michigan, in 1860, when my father was growing into young manhood and the city community in Detroit in 1930, where I am attempting to rear my children. In 1860, in that particular community, everyone was white. In Detroit today, while we have principally whites, we also have about one hundred thousand colored and an appreciable number of other races as well. The farm community was made up almost entirely of Protestant Christians, most of them of the Presbyterian or Baptist faith. Detroit today has practically every faith represented within its boundaries. In my own block, we have Orthodox Jews, Reformed Jews, Roman Catholics, Greek Orthodox Catholics, and representatives of a variety of Protestant denominations. So it goes in every basis of classification—politics, language, work, wealth, education, communication. The picture in 1860 is that of homogeneity, or like-mindedness. The contrasting picture in 1930 is heterogeneity, or different-mindedness.

FIGURE 1. CONTRAST BETWEEN A FARM COMMUNITY IN 1860 AND A CITY COMMUNITY IN 1930

Farm Community *Jackson County* *1860*		*City Community* *Detroit* *1930*
White	RACE	Many races
Protestant	RELIGION	Many faiths
Scotch-English	NATIONALITY	Many nationalities
Republican	POLITICS	Many parties
English	LANGUAGE	Many languages
Farming	WORK	Many occupations
Narrow range	WEALTH	Wide range
District school	EDUCATION	Wide range
Little	COMMUNICATION	Much
Homogeneity		*Heterogeneity*

The virtues that sufficed for life in a farming community in 1860 are inadequate for the demands of life in an urban industrial center in 1930. Not only are character traits such as honesty, industry, and reverence still valuable and necessary, but a new series of virtues, including tolerance, open-mindedness, and large-group-mindedness also is required.

FIGURE 2. RELATIVE SERIOUSNESS OF BEHAVIOR TRAITS.
511 Teachers and 30 Mental Hygienists.



The need for considering the whole of character education may be demonstrated in another way. Wickman[1] investigated the attitudes that selected teachers and psychiatrists had toward various types of children's behavior. Five hundred eleven teachers and thirty mental hygienists were asked to rate as to seriousness a number of behavior traits. I have selected six of these traits to show the differences in judgments as to seriousness. In Figure 2, the length of the bar denotes the seriousness attached to the trait. In each case, the outlined bar stands for the teachers' judgment, and the solid bar for the judgment of the hygienists. The first three traits—untruthfulness, impertinence, and disorderliness in class—are rated as of considerable importance by teachers. They are rated as of much less importance by the mental hygienists. On the other hand, traits such as resentfulness, fearfulness, and unsocialness are rated as of only slight importance by the teachers, but of considerable or extremely great importance by the mental hygienists.

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[1] Wickman, E. K. *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes,* p. 130. Commonwealth Fund, 1928. 247 p.

This chart illustrates what has been found to be true in a number of such investigations. In general, teachers consider most serious those types of behavior which are annoying; they tend to minimize the importance and seriousness of traits which may be classified as withdrawals from the social situation.

FIGURE 3. SERIOUSNESS OF TYPES OF BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

Teachers Versus Mental Hygienists
(Wickman)

	More Serious Than		More Serious Than		More Serious Than	
511 Teachers						
Immoralities Dishonesties Transgressions against authority		Violations of: Orderliness in classroom Application to school work		Extravagant, aggressive personality and behavior traits		Withdrawing, recessive personality and behavior traits
30 Mental Hygienists:						
Withdrawing, recessive personality and behavior traits		Dishonesties Cruelty Temper tantrums Truancy		Immoralities Violations of school work requirements Extravagant behavior traits		Transgressions against authority Violations of orderliness in class

The facts may be shown somewhat better perhaps by Figure 3.[1] Wickman classified the specific acts which were rated. He then arranged the resultant types in a descending sequence from more serious to less serious (from left to right on the diagram). The five hundred eleven teachers considered immoralities, dishonesties, and transgressions against authority, to be more serious than violations of orderliness in classroom, application to school work, and so on. They rated as the least serious the withdrawing, recessive personality and behavior traits. The ratings by the mental hygienists are shown on the lower part of the diagram. There are a number of radical differences. The most significant one probably is the shift in placement of withdrawing, recessive personality and behavior traits from the position of least serious, as judged by teachers, to the position of most serious, as judged by mental hygienists.

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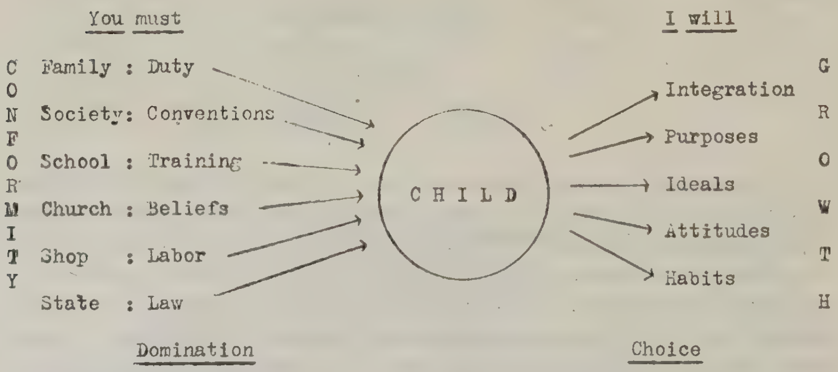
[1] Wickman, E. K., *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*, p. 130. Commonwealth Fund, 1928. 247 p.

My purpose in presenting these two figures is not to criticise either the teachers or the mental hygienists for their judgments. I am presenting this material, rather, to suggest that teachers, at least, need to broaden their concept of the term character. They need to recognize the wide variety of traits which are essential to a well-developed character. As teachers we must guard not only against gross immoralities, against annoying traits, against the extremes of extroversion, but also against the dangers inherent in unsocialness, extreme shyness, and, in general, against the characteristics of extreme introverts. A wellrounded comprehensive view of character is essential to any adequate program of character development.

The contrast between the older and more restricted notion of character and the newer and broader concept may be illustrated perhaps by the diagram shown in Figure 4. The child is born into an environment of human institutions which press in upon him, demanding the response of acceptance. The family stresses duty. Social life demands the adoption of the standard conventions. The school offers training. The church provides beliefs which the child is expected to accept. The shop is ever before the child as the place in which he must labor. The state is evident to the child mainly through the laws which he must obey. The essential characteristic of the implied scheme of morals is "you must." Its method is domination. Its purpose is to secure conformity with what is, and the preservation of what has been. The virtues which are stressed by this scheme are those which in general serve to maintain the existing order.

FIGURE 4. CONTRASTING IDEAS OF CHARACTER BUILDING



The schools generally are moving toward another philosophy of life, a philosophy which emphasizes choice, a philosophy which stimulates the child to will to do the useful and the right thing. Such a philosophy operates to help the child, himself, to develop desirable habits, attitudes, ideals, and purposes which can be unified and integrated about a central scheme of values. The whole process is directed to secure growth as well as the preservation of those elements of value in the older order. Such a scheme necessarily stresses a whole new series of virtues in addition to those which have been revered for centuries.

The specificness of character—A second point which I wish to suggest is that character traits, under present conditions of life and education, are highly specific. This conclusion has been arrived at both by those who have informally observed child life and child development, and by those who have conducted careful experimental studies. The studies made by Hartshorne and May and reported in *Studies in Deceit* are especially relevant. One of their major conclusions is that a child's behavior can rarely, if at all, be described in terms of general character qualities. The all or none judgment seems very difficult to make. They found in deception situations, for example, that one could say neither that a child always cheated nor that he never cheated, but rather that he did not cheat in certain situations but did cheat in certain other situations.

What are the implications of this point for the training of teachers? The basic implication, I believe, is that we need to do more to develop the ability to generalize and to transfer the desired character traits.

It seems to be true that, *under present conditions of life and education,* character traits are highly specific. This does not mean, however, that under other conditions of teaching it might not be possible to make these traits much more generally applicable than they seem to be now. If teachers and teacher-training institutions will seek to teach children how to generalize and how to apply to new situations the desirable character traits, we may be able to obtain undreamed of educational values.

In the meantime, it is expedient that we teach the desired character traits in the particular situations which are believed to be most significant. For example, suppose that we wish to develop the bond "other people's money—do not take it." We might conceivably do this in any one of many situations, among them that of being overchanged, and that of finding money on the street. I think that most people would admit that the former of these two situations is much more likely to occur under the conditions of modern life than is the latter. Our time in school is limited. It is impossible to develop every trait in every possible situation. We must select, we must choose those which seem more generally valuable. In this particular case, it would seem wise to teach the trait in the situation of receiving too much change.

A third point to which I wish to call attention is the significance of every contact of teacher and pupil. This applies in every subject but particularly in character education. We are much more aware nowadays than formerly of the emotional concomitants of all learning. We are more alert to the by-products of every phase of the learning process.

Let us note two cases where individual adults have attempted to explain the background of particular prejudices. A girl who had a definite prejudice against the idea of landlord said, "Until very recent years I've never had a landlord, so my reaction to the word is not due to personal experiences. As a child so many of the stories I read were about poor people whose landlords were always at the point of putting them on the street. My sympathies of course were with the heroine—therefore the reaction now." Note the by-product effect of early reading experiences. Unquestionably the teacher who taught this girl reading had no intention of developing a strong prejudice against landlords. Nevertheless, such a prejudice was one result of that piece of teaching.

Another case is that of a girl who admits a strong prejudice against Japanese. She says: "My aunt, who lives down East, told me about some Japanese that lived there. They did something to some of the white children and I have always remembered that. I have never heard anything pleasant or good about them." See the farreaching effect of an incidental conversation of years ago. Note how that discussion closed the mind of that child to hear anything good about Japanese. This particular girl went through a public school system, elementary, intermediate, and high, and had some college work. She did good work throughout as judged by the usual standards of the school. Yet she says, "I never have heard anything pleasant or good about Japanese." What a condemnation of our teaching methods and teaching procedures!

I give these cases to illustrate changes which occur in attitudes. These changes may be summed up somewhat as follows: they are usually gradual; they are usually involuntary; they are usually the result of many stimuli; often, perhaps in most cases, the changes which come are unintended on the part of those who bring about the change; they are affected only slightly by reasoning, except to bring out connections.

Since people differ in the meaning which they attach to a particular term, it may be well to define attitude in the sense in which I am using it. By attitude, I mean a feeling for or against some person, thing, or idea. Like a force in physics, it has direction for or against, and magnitude or intensity.

Our attitude toward X (any new item of experience) comes from our attitude toward other items of experience which we associate with it. The direction and intensity of the attitude depend on the number and relative intensity of the associated attitudes for and against. For example, my attitude toward the National Association of Deans of Women, which is a relatively new item in my experience, is determined by a host of other attitudes toward items which I associate with the phrase, "National Association of Deans of Women." Thus, I believe in cooperation through national organizations of people who have like interests and like activities. I associate that idea with the National Association of Deans of Women and therefore tend to feel favorably toward this organization. On the other hand, the term "Dean" recalls to my mind the dean of women in a certain normal college some years ago, and an annoying ten oclock rule which she was instrumental in having adopted. One influence of this mental association is to make me tend to disapprove mildly of the National Association of Deans of Women. Of course, these are only two of many, many associations which I, or other persons, have with the idea of the National Association of Deans of Women. My final attitude toward the organization is a kind of composite of the attitudes which I now have toward all the items which are associated in my mind with this organization.

There are two important types of transfer toward a new attitude. One is the transfer from our attitude toward a person (or group) who has expressed to us an attitude. A second is the transfer from our attitude toward the group where we classify the new item of experience. The first type is very well expressed by Walter Lippman in *Public Opinion,* "Symbols are made congenial and important because they are introduced to us by congenial and important people." If I approve of Mr. A, I tend to approve of those things of which Mr. A approves.

The other point may be illustrated by the explanation given by a person for disliking the phrase "one hundred percent American." He said, "because that is too much the Ku Klux Klan idea." This individual evidently associated the phrase "one hundred percent American" with the Ku Klux Klan and responded to it as he responds to the idea of Ku Klux Klan. In this case both responses are unfavorable.

What are the implications of this point for teacher training? As I see it, the implications are that those who are preparing to be teachers should be made to recognize the significance of every interaction between teacher and pupil. Along with the products of teaching which were intended, we are always securing others which were not sought. We need to be alert to the concomitants of every piece of learning.

Direct or indirect—It seems that there can never be any discussion of character education without having the question come up as to whether it should be direct or indirect. That question ordinarily relates to the situation as regards the pupil. Should he have a textbook on character? Should there be a particular time of the day when character is to be studied and recited? Should marks be given in character? Should character education have all of the rights and privileges appertaining to any subject in the curriculum as far as the pupil is concerned? The answer to these questions is not at all clear. Opinions differ materially. There are eloquent speakers on both sides. The final word has not yet been said. The decision in the last analysis cannot be made until there is available much more experimental evidence than at present.

As regards the teacher, however, the situation is much clearer and there is much better agreement. There seems to be no question but that character education should be direct from the point of view of the teacher. By this is meant that the teacher needs to plan as definitely and as precisely for securing growth in children's character as he does for securing growth in arithmetic fundamentals or in the knowledge of the valence of chemical elements.

Now, what can deans do about it all? I think that, in the first place, they can encourage all sorts of activities which operate to broaden the concept of character which is held by the students in their institutions. In the second place, they can stress the need of developing the ability to generalize and to transfer to new situations the desired character qualities. This task is admittedly difficult but one which promises great results from its completion. In the third place, they can aid students to secure control over the ways of changing people's attitudes. Character education is largely a matter of attitudes. It behooves all of us to learn from the advertising man, the propagandist, and others who are expert in determining and in modifying people's attitudes. In the fourth place, they can emphasize again and again the necessity for planning the teaching of character.

Finally, deans of women—and all the other faculty members in a teacher-training institution—can, themselves, use these implied principles in dealing with the students of their own institutions.

HELP HIGH-SCHOOL DEANS MAY GIVE TO COLLEGE DEANS

AGNES E. WELLS, DEAN OF WOMEN, INDIANA UNIVERSITY
BLOOMINGTON, IND.

Innumerable are the ways in which the high-school dean of girls can and does aid the college dean of women. Assuming that a girl has the ability to do creditable college work, her success in college depends not only upon her scholastic preparation, necessary as that is, but perhaps even more upon her character, her attitude toward work and play, and her ability to adapt herself to college life. The wise influence and guidance of the dean of girls, while it cannot work miracles, can help to lay the foundation necessary for success. Whatever contributes to the success of the individual student constitutes the greatest aid to the college dean.

In scholastic preparation the first step in the high-school dean's work is the guidance of the girl in the selection of her course, so that she may enter college without conditions. This means that the dean should know the college entrance requirements of all colleges usually chosen by the girls of her school. The high-school course having been determined upon with the college in mind, she may be of service in helping the girl and her parents to understand the vocations open to students through work in the different colleges of the universities. This implies an understanding of the intricacies of college catalogues, a difficult matter for those unacquainted with college work. Necessary reviews in subjects to be continued in college such as mathematics and modern languages can be advised, so that the student may be prepared to go on with work discontinued for a year or more. Since many colleges require an entrance examination, at least in English, it is well for the girls to prepare themselves for it, by reviews or by further courses in the high school.

Too much emphasis cannot be laid upon the necessity for correct habits of study and of industry. These habits, if not formed in the high school, are acquired later at the expense of sometimes bitter disappointments to the girls and their parents. The high-school dean and her assistants can prevent perhaps ninety percent of these disappointments. Correct study habits, a proper appreciation of industry, the right attitude toward outside activities are so bound up with character that the dean who helps the girl in these respects helps also to form her character. Honest school work and straight thinking help to develop good character.

There are agencies in every community ready and willing to aid a high-school dean in her work of preparing a girl for campus life. Local groups of the American Association of University Women frequently plan for illustrated talks on the different colleges, by graduates of these institutions. Such talks given to the girls and their mothers often open up new fields of interest and investigation. They may be followed by information given by the dean on such subjects as the college home, methods of registration, ways of earning money while at college, with probable amounts to be earned. The talks on housing may include the fundamentals of group living, where ninety-nine percent of the group are of the same age and engaged in the same pursuits. Girls and often parents do not grasp the fundamental differences between such a group and the ordinary family, necessitating regulations which seem sometimes unnecessary but which may be shown to be inherent in the group. Descriptions of life in dormitories, in sorority houses, in approved rooming houses, or in private houses where a girl may exchange four hours of work daily for her room and board, will make possible for students an easier and happier adjustment to their new environment. It also makes life happier and easier from the beginning for the college dean who either lives in a dormitory or directs the work of a dormitory through a social head. Her time can be used at once for the development of constructive plans for the year, with willing freshmen eager to help.

Parents may be told about the necessary expenses of college life, advised to insure all possessions against fire and theft, and warned against too expensive clothes. Many parents of moderate incomes struggle with unnecessary demands on the part of their children far beyond their means. Fortunate is the community whose high-school dean can create an atmosphere such that the pupils learn unconsciously to distinguish between essentials and nonessentials, and to place the emphasis where it belongs.

As was stated at the outset, whatever helps the girl helps also the college dean. It does not take her long to size up schools and localities and to greet with joy or meet with dread the appearance of their graduates. The officers of the Association of Women Students acquire the habit of expecting to recruit their ranks from schools in which the high-school deans have taught selfcontrol, interest, and joy in contributing to the good of all.

There is another and very practical way in which the high-school dean may give aid to the college dean. This aid is outlined in the following blank, suggesting many items of information which the college can use in helping the student in her orientation to the new environment.

OUTLINE FOR SUGGESTED BLANK

..............High School Place.............. Date..............

Name of student...................... Graduation date..............

Course..............

I. *Parents*
  - A. Parents' Nationality
    - 1. Foreign
    - 2. American.
  - B. Education
    - 1. Grade
    - 2. High school
    - 3. College.
  - C. Both parents living—yes, no
  - D. Parents separated—yes, no
    Girl living with father, mother, relatives.
  - E. Parents gainfully occupied—father, mother
  - F. Parents' financial standing
    - 1. Afford luxuries
    - 2. Afford necessities
    - 3. Poor.
  - G. Parents' Cooperation
    - 1. No interest
    - 2. Expecting especial privileges
    - 3. Intelligently cooperative.

II. *Girls*
  - A. Outside Interests
    - 1. Athletics
    - 2. Dances
    - 3. Music or dramatics
    - 4. Night clubs
    - 5. Interest in high school clubs selfish—yes, no
    - 6. Church work or social work
    - 7. Gainfully occupied—yes, no.
  - B. Trustworthiness
    - 1. In work—good, poor
    - 2. In actions—good, poor.
  - C. Aptitude for college work
    - 1. Excellent
      - a. Brilliant
      - b. Persevering.
    - 2. Medium
    - 3. Slow
    - 4. Dull
  - D. Place in the Graduating Class
    - 1. Upper third
    - 2. Middle third
    - 3. Lower third
    - 4. Number in class
    - 5. Class average.
  - E. Probable course desired
    - 1. Decided upon
    - 2. Undecided.

F. Executive ability
    1. Real
    2. Imagined
    3. None
    4. Good leader
    5. Good follower.
G. Experience
    1. In selfgovernment association as
        a. Officer
        b. Committee chairman
        c. Committee member.
    2. In other activities
        a. Dramatics
        b. Debating
        c. Music
        d. Blue Triangle, etc.

All of this demands precious time, usually encroaching upon the high-school dean's leisure. The value, however, is untold and would mean the possibility of the girl's being able to adapt herself more quickly to college life, because the college dean could more quickly arrange for agencies to help her.

INSTITUTE: NECESSARY AND USABLE RECORDS FOR THE HIGH-SCHOOL DEAN[1]

HARRIET HAYES, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y., *Leader*

RUTH SANDERSON, NOTTINGHAM HIGH SCHOOL, SYRACUSE, N. Y., *Scribe*

All who attended agreed that records must be "human," should not be an end in themselves, and must serve as a means for making facts readily available for use. We as deans should not become statistically minded, but should use records as the physician uses fine instruments.

Records needed by a dean will necessarily vary:

1. With the size of the school
2. With the work the dean does
3. With the location of the dean's office
4. With the system of record keeping in the main office of her particular school and system.

Records should be kept in a way that will insure their most effective use:

1. By the dean, her staff, and their successors
2. By other authorized persons, such as members of the faculty, and (in many non-confidential types of records) by students
3. By research workers.

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[1] The Institute on Necessary and Usable Records for a Dean of Girls in High School, at the Atlantic City Conference, was an insight into the "Laboratory of Practise." It was led by Miss Harriet Hayes of Columbia University, assisted by Miss Lillian Bowie of Woodward High School, Cincinnati; Miss Mary E. Cook, Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Miss Fannie S. Mitchell, Central High School, Greensboro, N. C.; Mrs. Susan B. Nay, Muncie High School, Muncie, Indiana; Mrs. Mary F. Pilcher, High School, Montclair, N. J., and Miss Josephine R. Toomey, West Orange High School, New Jersey.

Records may be classified as:

1. Temporary (to be destroyed after a brief period of usefulness)
2. Semi-permanent (serving through a longer period, as throughout a student's high-school career), and
3. Permanent (filed for possible future reference, and research).

Records should have the following qualities:

1. Suitability for their essential purposes, and convenient size, shape, for handling
2. Compactness (without extraneous or unnecessary items)
3. Completeness (fitting their purpose adequately)
4. Flexibility (with provision for protection of confidential items where cards are in general use)
5. They should be devised with care for economy of time and labor for making out and keeping up.

The dean should have, either in her own office or immediately available, the following records for every girl:

1. Name, age, I.Q., and results of other tests
2. Social and economic background
3. School history
4. Present course of study
5. Health record
6. Interests and activities in and out of school
7. Educational and vocational expectations
8. Record of persons or organizations interested in the girl.

The dean, as director of the social program of the school, should have the following records:

1. The calendar of events (the keeping of which the principal will ordinarily delegate to the dean)
2. Records of clubs and their memberships
3. Records in connection with the point system, especially as it concerns girls
4. A record of all employed girls
5. Records of loans and scholarships
6. Records of honors
7. Records of home room and other social programs.

In keeping records the following devices have been found useful:

1. Vertical files
2. Varicolored cards
3. Colored signal clips for cards
4. Uniform cards and designations.

Department of Educational Research

THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION applied in 1929 to become the department of educational research in the Association. The proper notice was given at the Atlanta meeting in 1929, and final action in creating the department was taken at the Columbus, Ohio, meeting on July 3, 1930. The research organization brings with it a history rich in achievements and places the National Education Association in closer touch with colleges, universities, and research agencies.

Officers of the Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, W. W. Charters, Director, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; Vicepresident, P. T. Rankin, Supervising Director, Research Adjustment, Board of Education, Detroit, Mich.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, William S. Gray, Dean, College of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Department of Elementary School Principals

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, temporarily organized as the National Association of Elementary School Principals at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendence in February, 1921, became a department of the National Education Association at Des Moines, in July, 1921.

The officers of the Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Cassie F. Roys, 2609 Bristol St., Omaha, Nebr.; *First Vicepresident*, Herbert C. Hansen, 315 Plymouth Court, Chicago, Ill.; *Second Vicepresident*, Earl R. Laing, 20710 Pilgrim Ave., Detroit, Mich.; *Third Vicepresident*, Cora Rustling, 4416 S. Normandie Ave., Los Angeles, Calif.; *Fourth Vicepresident*, George Taylor, Susan B. Anthony School No. 27, Rochester, N. Y.; *Fifth Vicepresident*, Julia Sheehan, Hunnewell School, Wellesley, Mass.; *Secretary*, F. H. Duffy, 1616 Ridge Ave., Steubenville, Ohio; *Executive Committee*, Elizabeth McCormick, Howe School, Superior, Wis. (Term expires 1931); James Floyd, 717 Garden St., Plainfield, N. J. (Term expires 1932); M. Emma Brookes, Miles School, Cleveland, Ohio (Term expires 1933); Eva G. Pinkston, 5652 Belmont Ave., Dallas, Texas (Term expires 1934). This Department meets twice each year—in February and July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1921:453
1922:851-886
1923:653-666
1924:545-564
1925:450-477
1926:457-495
1927:419-456
1928:375-409
1929:391-424

ARITHMETIC, ITS VALUE IN OUR SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

BELLE TORREY SCOTT, PRINCIPAL, FULTON SCHOOL, COLUMBUS, OHIO

THAT THE subject of arithmetic is an essential and integral part of the curriculum of the modern school needs no apology for its claim. The three R's have long since become taboo, as such, but those who are willing to give serious and unbiased judgment in the matter must concede that much sound psychology lay at the foundation of the early teaching.

We are living in an age of rapid changes, the technicalities of society are changing, but the fundamental principles upon which society is constructed are not changing.

It is to meet this ever changing condition that the school must direct itself, being ever mindful of the fact that a deliberate and consistent adaptation is far preferable to a sudden revolution.

Difficulties in teaching of arithmetic have arisen because we as teachers have violated every principle of psychology. We have not considered the child with his interests and experiences but have thrust upon him our notions.

While we must observe these basic principles, if we consider only his present skills, desires, strengths, and weaknesses, we fail to attain the objective toward which we are working. Tomorrow is still ahead of him and he must be prepared to interpret the environment in which he finds himself to the end that he may live his best self.

The ethical lessons to be learned through the study of arithmetic are valuable and desirable—truth, accuracy, honesty, concentration are the very warp and woof of an intelligent existence; these qualities through a working knowledge of numbers are stressed and, by patient observance, become fixed habits.

THE IMPORTANCE OF A READING PROGRAM TO THE SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

MARGARET L. WHITE, ELEMENTARY SUPERVISOR, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, CLEVELAND, OHIO

There is probably no school subject in the elementary grades that is more fundamental or important than that of reading. Every other school subject is dependent to some degree upon effective and intelligent reading.

A statement that has often been made in regard to the reading program in the elementary grades says in effect, "The time of the children in the primary grades should be devoted to learning to read, while the time in the upper grades should be spent in reading to learn." It seems to me that there is no reason why the two objectives cannot be accomplished at the same time, from the very beginning of the reading program. There are two objectives that we are all working for in reading: First, that of getting a child to enjoy and want to read; and second, teaching the child the mechanical skills necessary to be a good reader. One objective is useless without the other.

Too often the work in the primary grades is confined to word recognition or, in other words, to building a reading vocabulary. This is quite important and necessary, but it is only a part of the program, for we all recognize the importance of establishing desirable habits from the beginning. It is essential for the reading program to plan to develop good habits in attacking news words, phrasing, eye-span, keeping one's place, reading comprehendingly, as well as reading for many purposes, such as reading to follow directions, reading to get information, reading to answer questions, etc. Nor must the reading program lose sight of the fact that worthwhile and genuine interest must be developed and fostered.

Another principle that should be consciously adhered to and planned for is that of using simple material in order to attain fluency in reading and to develop one's confidence in his reading ability.

As a result of experimentation, testing and observation in our reading curriculum center in Cleveland, we have come to some rather definite conclusions as to some problems in primary reading. These are:

1. All children do not learn to read in the same way or at the same age.
2. There is not enough variety of methods to take care of individual differences.
3. The vocabularies of experience charts and incidental reading are often too specialized to be of great help in reading books of general interest.
4. There is not enough repetition of the *same* vocabulary in different and new situations.
5. Lack of reading readiness, due to environment, language difficulties, experiences, training, etc.
6. Lack of a variety of reading material.
7. Lack of interest in reading.
8. Lack of training in the mechanics of reading.

These problems are suggestive as to what should be taken care of in a reading program for the primary grades.

By the time children have completed the third grade, most of them have mastered the mechanics of reading. There are, however, new types of reading needed for the upper grades. The added subjectmatter that the child needs necessitates much reading to get the main idea, to get details, to answer questions, to form conclusions, and various other skills necessary in reference reading. Some of these skills require skimming, note-taking, and outlining. All of these are more or less new technics to be learned by the child. More and more stress is put on the proper use of books, such as the table of contents, chapter headings, encyclopedia, and dictionary. These grades also present the opportunity for developing new interests and appreciations, as well as fostering old ones. Realizing the complexity of the child's reading problem at this stage a reading program should plan the best organization and procedures for meeting this problem.

As a result of reading tests and teachers' judgment, certain children in Cleveland were placed in special reading groups, regardless of their grades. It was necessary to have nine reading groups. Two groups were composed of children who were excellent readers, but who needed development in appreciation and taste. Two groups were organized to work on reference reading. One group was organized for reading interest and another one to work on comprehension. Three groups were organized to work on the mechanics of reading. In order to organize these groups, all the grades had a reading period for forty minutes at the same time each day. This made it possible for a child to attend the particular group he needed. He could move from one group to another as his skill improved.

We were amazed at the great number of children needing help in the mechanics of reading. It seemed to point to the fact that there are always in these grades children of low mentality, but not borderline material, however, who are unable to cope with the amount of reading essential to carry on the work of these grades.

The organization has proved to be very valuable in making both teachers and children conscious of individual problems in reading, as well as the many skills necessary for intelligent reading. Great improvement was shown in reading ability. We feel that another year the organization should include only the fifth and sixth grades, due to the fact that the range of abilities is too great to be handled effectively.

No reading program would be complete without some provision for library reading. The elementary schools have a very definite responsibility for developing the library habit and for fostering an interest in worthwhile books.

ENGLISH AND ITS VALUE TO OUR SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

GEORGE F. CASSELL, PRINCIPAL, PENN SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILL.

How heavy a task it is for a child to set down his thoughts in writing we teachers often underestimate. Creative composition, the writing of reasons and hopes and ideas that one holds, represents an effort which is taxing.

Humbly, therefore, and helpfully, realizing the hardships of the path along which we ask him to come, so that we may not make the hardships a matter of distaste but rather an invitation to worthy success, let us open up the way of composition to the child for the sake of the values it presents. It is a medium through which he learns to communicate in a more or less careful way with persons with whom other methods of communication are not readily open. It is also a manner of making a record of what he has to say. Beyond this, moreover, are the benefits that come from the effort to reduce to visible and exact shape the ideas that are his, and the necessity of searching himself as to the validity of those ideas and their logic; the worth of his information and thought; and the effectiveness and attractiveness of the form in which he has placed them.

We are composing orally much of our time, and since the transfer of our thoughts from one to another by word of mouth is so regular a phenomenon and one of the distinctions which set us apart from all other forms of created things, it should be a joy always and maintained on a plane of sheer happiness. In unschooled and out-of-school childhood it is. Bad grammar, slurred enunciation, incomplete sentences, incorrect pronunciation stand not at all in the way of the four or five-year-old child who, with his fellows, composes and delivers his thoughts in glorious abandon and volubility. He does not know that he is composing. Think of the difference an hour makes with the children of the elementary schools! Unless we are wise, three oclock may find a class in conscious fear before the number of the verb, while the antecedent of its subject is being sought, or so worked upon in the effort to have the correct form of a pronoun as to forget the meaning of the sentence. Four oclock finds groups of the same girls and boys exchanging with vividness and accuracy, with mirth or scorn or appreciation, their impressions of that day's assembly program, the inter-room game they mean to win, the teacher's vulnerable personality, or the relative prowess of national athletes. What a pity! We wanted them to speak freely in the classroom too, and they did not. Why did we want them to speak freely? Well, we wanted to correct their speech. But how can we expect anyone to want to speak if he feels that he is urged to utterance in order that he may be corrected? Hard as it is for a child to be silent, he prefers silence to talk that he feels will be subjected to such treatment. How then is he to be helped in oral English? I should say, in general, by treating what he has to say as being of importance, by encouraging him to impart his information to the very end, and by giving him the courtesy and apparently interested attention that is stimulating to the adult speaker. Then our suggestions and corrections as to change in presentation and conformity to accepted standards may be offered and explained as altogether incidental and subordinate to the real purpose of his effort. Oral composition is talking. Children delight in talking. Let us of the schools be careful not to kill the substance of the matter by a rigid clamping down upon it of the form. Let us not permit a preoccupation with accuracy to deprive the child of freedom of range, for in oral English the really vital value lies in the satisfaction of having expressed aloud the thought one had.

Of far greater possibility of service to the young people of our schools, however, than composition, either written or oral, can ever be, is that part of their training in English that is broadly spoken of as literature. Among the generally accepted aims of education are to be found, almost as articles in a statement of religious faith: training for worthy citizenship, helping to a profitable use of leisure, the producing of noble character, the beneficial articulation of the individual with his fellows of the home. All these depend upon the getting and the holding of ideals, and I am convinced that it is through the literature with which the child becomes acquainted that he gets and holds his ideals to a degree much greater than is commonly believed.

We wish to train the girls and boys for worthy home membership. We can do very much toward this through the reading material we present and the interpretation we give to it. Surely books of sincere purpose and stories involving unforced situations make an ideal medium through which to pass to the child the conceptions of obedience to his parents, of unselfishness in his dealings with his brothers and sisters, of a justifiable pride in his family and in himself as a member of his family. The right sort of reading matter will do more toward this end.

What of profitable use of leisure? I am not suggesting that the child should fill with reading most of the spaces that may lie between his school work, his play and his home tasks, nor am I prophesying that the average adult, even he upon whom as child or adult the magic of the printed word has laid its spell, will so use the larger part of the time that may come to him as respite from his usual work. Nevertheless, it seems to me that attitudes of mind and purpose of thought, influencing the choice of activity in leisure hours, come very directly from previous reading.

Train for citizenship! We have no more effective antidote against the undesirable impressions that may come to the child from the conversation and the acts of cynical adults, against the false admiration for the prominence of people whose unsocial conduct has given them temporary publicity, against the lurid appeal of sordid lawlessness which unfortunately in the daily papers is often fitted out in heroic dress, than may be found in the record of the noble people of history and the best characters of fiction. Here is one of the most proper and effective means of training happily for citizenship.

No connotation associated with the word *character* is of more interesting and vigorous meaning than that suggested by the Greek verb from which it derives—the idea of engraving or marking permanently the material upon which one works. The public schools wish to excel in character training.

What implements to use in cutting the lines of character is a delicate matter for the teacher to determine. They must be many and varied, but among them must be found that of good reading. It is an instrument made to cut deep and clear, and one which makes possible the finer and more delicate lines in the finished plate. For this purpose the schools have no better tool, and I should be at loss to name another as good.

THE DISTINCTIVE CONTRIBUTIONS OF GEOGRAPHY IN EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

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Geography is not what it was three decades or so ago, nor is it what the rank and file of Americans of today think it is; even many school authorities know little of its presentday aspects.

To be assured that tremendous progress has been made in the quality of the books in geography texts and supplementary reading, one has but to compare the books that were used forty years ago with those of today; and to realize that progress has been made in certain methods of teaching one has but to recall the listless, deadening, memorative recitations of thirty years ago with a busy geography hour in the classroom of a skilful teacher where the children, surrounded by maps of many sorts, a school museum at hand, and a collection of pictures, are too absorbed with class discussions of the working out of what seem to them weighty problems to break the unwritten law of class decorum.

The greatest progress in the science of geography has been in the higher institutions of learning. One will find geography departments with faculties numbering from two to a dozen or more in nearly every state university and larger endowed university from Boston Bay to the Pacific coast. This represents a growth of only a little more than two decades. While I am to discuss the value of geography in the elementary school, I cite these facts concerning its status in the higher institutions to show that I am not talking about an old, decrepit subject or science that belongs to those ancient days when education was known as pedagogy and memorative recitations and formal discipline were in vogue.

Geography is an old science. There are volumes in geography even older than the New Testament; but it is only in recent decades, since America has become a great industrial nation and a world power, and life in general has reached a complexity wholly new to developing civilization, that geography under a new and practical discipline has come into a new field of usefulness.

Presentday geography acquaints the children with modern agriculture in its many phases—cereal growing, cotton culture, subtropical fruit production, humid agriculture, dryland farming, irrigation, land and water transportation, mining, and manufacturing. It is concerned with the busy world, with man at work in every clime and in every land. It considers the social and political conditions under which he works that affect his work. It looks at things from the world viewpoint.

VITAL VALUES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

E. RUTH PYRTLE, PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, LINCOLN, NEBR.

I appreciate the honor and privilege of bringing you greetings from your parent organization. I congratulate this Department upon the splendid program set up for your meeting. No group of educators have a finer opportunity than have those in the elementary field. Your splendidly planned program which emphasizes essential values in the traditional subjectmatter together with proper emphasis on modern trends in education to fit modern needs and demands will inspire and help not only the elementary but the whole field of education. I could wish nothing better for *all* of the children of America than to have them enjoy the opportunities and benefits provided for our best schools where I have been privileged to visit this year as President of the National Education Association. It is most encouraging that more and more teachers are leading pupils to thinking, weighing, measuring, reasoning, making judgments, and letting memory become the byproduct rather than the main objective in the day's program.

Having a keen sense of vital values will cause us to put emphasis on "first things first." Dr. Dewey says that in our schools we have freed individuality in many modes of outer expression without freeing intelligence, which is the vital spring and guarantee of all these expressions. It does not take new or different equipment than we now have in nearly all schools, but use of the equipment or environment in a more profitable manner. For example he says, take the child out-of-doors widening and organizing his experience with reference to the world in which he lives; nature study should be a vital observation of forces working under their natural conditions, plants and animals growing in their own homes, instead of mere discussion of dead specimens.

We believe it is fundamental in our teaching that we have a sense of vital values in education and put emphasis on first things, *first.*

Henry Turner Bailey emphasizes that nature in the inexhaustible reservoir of suggestion for all science—the trees, the birds, the butterflies, the moths, the clouds, and the stars never cease to entertain and to bless all who have learned to love them. He says when we are wiser, we will run the buses of the board of education not to bring rural children *into* city schools, but to take city children *into* the country that they may learn to know, and love God's first revelation to man, and feel at home in the natural world because they are well acquainted with it.

Which is the greater tragedy, for a child to live in a crowded city in a home and school environment that almost prevents his chance for appreciation of the real values of life, or the child living in the rural school environment—perhaps surrounded by the beauty of God's great out-of-doors—and yet not appreciating it because of having "eyes that see not and ears that hear not?"

Once I asked a twelve year old boy about the scarlet tanager which was nesting within a stone's throw of his school. This modern rural school house was located in beautiful river woods, a locality well known to ornithologists as one of the best in the United States for making a long bird list. The boy knew nothing about the tanager; he said his teacher thought his class did not have time to study birds, they had so much arithmetic and geography "to get."

Bishop William A. Quayle once said he would like to add a beatitude to the list, to read, "Blessed are those who have *eyes* to see and *use* them; Blessed are those who *have* ears to hear and *hear* with them." The beatitude I would add is—"Blessed are those who *help* others to see."

These blessed surely include the classroom teachers of America who have the vision of putting the emphasis on "First things *first*" and put that into practise in everyday classroom instruction. Fortunate indeed, is the child who is associated with that type of teacher!

One of your favorite writers in his: "God of the Open-Air" expresses this philosophy of vital values:

> These are the things I prize,
> And hold of dearest worth
> Light of the sapphire skies,
> Peace of the silent hill.
> Shelter of forest,
> Comfort of grass,
> Music of birds,
> Murmur of little rills,
> Shadows of clouds that swiftly pass,
> And after showers,
> The smell of flowers
> And of the good brown earth,
> And best of all, along the way,
> Friendship and mirth.

VITAL VALUES IN EDUCATION—UNIVERSITY POINT OF VIEW—ABSTRACT

HARRY C. MCKOWN, UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH, PITTSBURGH, PA.

The first vital value in education concerns useful knowledges and skills. All of us are familiar with the great array of futile and useless, and frequently silly, stunts which have been done and which are still being done in the name of education, usually justified on the basis of formal discipline, busy work, or tradition. All of us are familiar too with the ever increasing demand for more useful and more easily justifiable material and values. The elementary school, because of its traditional and logical function as the purveyor of the three R's, the tool subjects, is probably rather free from the common criticism that education is more concerned with its subjects than with its objects, and that it is too academic and bookish.

A second perfectly evident vital value is healthy bodies. The boy or girl who is physically unhappy has little business attempting to become mentally and spiritually happy. He lacks the very basis upon which spiritual and mental happiness is built. Here again the elementary school is rather free of the shackles which have hindered the development of healthy bodies in the high school and shackles which are beginning to make their appearance in the junior high school—interscholastic athletics—in which, for purposes of developing school morale, advertising the school, and enlisting community interest we build a program and forget our pupils. How many schools confuse a program of interscholastic athletics with a program of physical education! The typical interscholastic athletic program, in the typical high school, is not and never can be, as at present organized, a program of physical education, for the wellknown reasons that too few pupils participate, those who need participation do not get it, those who get it do not need it, the activities are too highly specialized and are those in which the adult will not engage. May the elementary school develop a program of physical education and never a program of interscholastic athletics.

A third evident vital value in education is many-sidedness. The individual with a single track attitude and experience is a narrow person, unhappily fitted to a civilization in which in one hour he must react intelligently to a dozen different phases of human experience—radio, dramatics, music, automobile mechanism, food, clothing, pressing local and international problems, amateur and professional athletics and sports, recreational activities, etc. We have somewhat reserved the development of this many-sidedness as a function of the junior high school, but we are realizing more fully that it is increasingly possible of development in the elementary school. As the formal subjects are being pushed farther and farther down in the elementary school so are also the social or socalled extracurriculum activities. The elementary school, through a sensible use of the auditorium, the school club, such supplementary organizations as Boy and Girl Scouts, trips, music and dramatics, exhibitions, and the like, may at least help to start the development of this many-sidedness.

A fourth vital value in education is desirable social responsiveness. All of us live in social and not individual environments and all of us must be trained to live in these situations. The school has a big responsibility in so training the pupils that they may live lives socially successful. Here again the socalled extracurriculum activities offer opportunities. The pupil, through his participation in room organization, clubs, council or cabinet, service committees and squads, and his work in helping to promote the various activities about the school is learning by doing, is accepting and discharging his responsibilities in the same way he will accept and discharge them as an adult.

A fifth vital value is happy spirits. The child or adult who is unhappy is a pitiable individual and how much unhappiness can be attributed to an inability to sense and be delightfully thrilled by the beautiful. Of course the child must be educated from his appreciation of his childish pretties to those he should enjoy as an adult. Naturally those of adulthood should not be those of childhood. In many instances however the adult has not become an adult, he has not grown up and put away childish things. Let us think definitely of three fields of education in which we probably have the greatest possibilities for cultivating happy spirits. All of us as children and adults read literature, listen to music, and look at works of art.

Note the usual standards in literature. What is popular in literature (and in the movies, which is the modern predigested form of literature)? Try to get into a motion picture theater when such masterpieces as "Her Fatal Error," "Should a Woman Tell," "Her Rosy Past," or "The Sins of my Grandmother" are being offered and you will find that you have to reserve your seats in advance. But if you want to attend a performance of what our teachers hold to be good literature, you will find that most of it has not been sufficiently interesting to justify screening or staging, and if it has been screened and staged you will have no trouble in getting seats at any time. Why did we as youngsters love the dime novels and the nickel thrillers?—because we knew no better. We enjoyed them to be sure. Yet they were all as alike as the typical movie stories today. And we lacked the experience upon which to make discriminating judgments. Sad the individual who never read one of these curdling tales; sadder still the individual who read nothing but them; and still sadder still the individual who since then has read nothing but the same type of literature—the individual who is still in the swaddling clothes of literary appreciation.

In music witness the popularity of such classics as "Yes, We Have No Bananas," "Barney Google," "Don't Bring Lulu," and others, or the demand for the blue song crooner or mammy song singer. These show the size of the average individual's standards of music appreciation. And I fear that many of the socalled operettas as given in our schools, with their brigands, pirates, outlaws, Indians, and what nots, are little higher up the scale in quality. But in any case most of us are childish in our musical tastes.

Our childishness in art may be evidenced by the extent to which we clutter up our homes with cheap pictures, statuary, and gaudy household furnishings and decorations. If you will pardon a personal illustration. It always irritates me to attend a national or international exhibition of pictures and to find that first prize has been awarded to some drab, colorless, unintelligible, and uninteresting painting of a pot and a pumpkin on a box. I can see in the exhibition many pictures which are much prettier and many which are much more interesting. This is because I have no esthetic nature or lack the education which would assist me in properly appreciating the artistry of these prize and honorable mention pictures.

I am not boasting about my ignorance of art. I am rather bemoaning the fact that, as a pupil in the school, I, an individual with no special interest or ability in drawing or art of any kind, was not given some suggestions which would gradually raise my standards from the ten-cent store type of gaudy color and misty vista. When I was in school my teachers were so interested in attempting to make Michelangelos and Whistlers out of a half dozen of my schoolmates that they had no time to do anything at all for twenty times as many of us who could never be producers, but all of whom would be consumers all of our lives. I am trying now to learn some simple things about art, but it is a slow and painful process.

What then can we do with literature, music, and art to make for happier spirits? The boy or girl who has ability and interest will need little or no encouragement, but those who have little or no ability, who will be consumers rather than producers, are discouraged from learning anything about literature, art, or music because they do not have the ability to meet the exacting requirements of passing courses, so they do not enter them.

In summary the pupil will consume literature, music, and art all of his life and we owe it to him to so educate him that his consumption will be anything but barbaric. As yet we so frequently appear to think that our main job is only to educate producers, and we specialize in attempting to make writers of literature, composers of music, and painters of pictures. We have hardly begun the more important job of educating for worthy consumption. And when we do we will begin to approach in intelligent fashion this all important task of developing happier spirits.

A last vital value in education concerns sensible thrift practises. Nearly all of the elementary schools of the country have widely advertised programs of savings and very, very few of them have any program of thrift or make any attempt at all to teach thrift. Most of them confuse a program of saving with a program of thrift. How many teachers have told me that they were judged more by the extent of their pupils' participation in saving than by their success in the usual school work. And the cause and result of this coercion is to be found in the contests for the mystical one hundred percent in classroom and school savings. So interested are we in having our schools listed as a hundred percent or as high a percent as possible in the advertising publications of the socalled school thrift companies that we usually allow or ask other pupils to contribute pennies for some indigent pupil who forgot to bring his "savings." And how frequently when such pupil help is not forthcoming the teacher himself must dig down into his not too full pocketbook and make the necessary contribution in order that the record of the class or group shall be good enough to attract the attention of the authorities and be duly recorded in the advertising of the thrift company. And then we teachers talk about training for character!

What we need in the schools is a real program on the teaching of thrift and this is not in any degree comprehended by a program of saving money. Saving money is important and basic and systematic saving is a proper and worthy educational objective, but other habits just as important are those of spending, giving, and investing. As yet we appear to have no time for teaching these.

Take buying for example? All of us buy and will buy all of our lives, and yet where do we learn to buy? We learn from experience only and experience runs an expensive school. Think of the millions and millions of dollars that are wasted each year because we as buyers are the rankest of amateurs while the seller is all too frequently the rankest of professionals. For protection, we need to educate the buyer on buymanship to match the education of the seller on salesmanship.

In addition to saving and buying, a third set of important habits in thrift concerns giving. Giving is an important part of the financial, social, and service life of all. We support charity, religious institutions, distressed local and foreign communities, and many other worthy causes. But how much of our giving is unintelligently done? Much of it is on the basis of an emotional rather than an intelligent reaction. A poor unfortunate on the street can do wonders in making us emphasize emotion and forget intelligence. And so we encourage panhandling, mooching, tag days, and other forms of begging which intelligent giving would drive from our communities. There might as well be a few pointers on Christmas giving, too.

A fourth important wheel of the thrift chariot is investing. An investment expert recently stated that the women of the country buy each year seven hundred million dollars worth of "insecurities." If we grant that men buy half as much this would make a total of one billion dollars, half as much as our entire annual educational bill, wasted. We cannot do a great deal but we can do something. I should be willing to trade the establishment and functioning of one little idea on thrift for any year or two of any subject in the school. This idea is simply "Do not buy a dollar's worth of anything until you have talked to your banker. He is safe, he is conservative. He is more interested in making five dollars this week than he is in making a million dollars in the next ten minutes." The establishment of such an idea should assist in cutting down this enormous waste.

Another most important phase of investment concerns insurance. If I were a girl I should not marry the most wonderful man in the world unless I were properly protected by insurance. While the younger pupils would not be able to appreciate many of the details of the various forms of insurance, a general idea could be planted which would later result in happiness. Material for the older pupils might concern the advantages of the various kinds of insurance, home ownership, and investments of other kinds.

It should be clear that because of the very nature of its function the elementary school, with perhaps the exception of the upper grades, has always been pretty free from the practise of disseminating useless knowledge, yet it has also not been particularly interested in emphasizing the social and relational values of education, an emphasis which the junior high school, in particular, is just now making. There appears to be no good reason why this social phase should not be likewise emphasized more in the middle and lower grades. It is true that the elementary school to some extent is constantly developing this program and it will doubtless continue to develop a greater emphasis upon social objectives and activities. In conclusion the elementary school has the responsibility of at least beginning in good fashion the development of these vital values, objectives, or procedures in education, useful knowledges and skills, healthy bodies, many-sided interests, desirable social responsiveness, happy spirits, and sensible thrift practises, and its responsibility is the greater because all children attend it and many will not go far beyond it.

VITAL VALUES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARIES

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In its evolution the acceptance of libraries as integral parts of schools has, like many educational developments, come from the top down. For a long time universities and colleges have regarded libraries as essential equipment. Within the last quarter of a century libraries have found their places in most high schools, and more recently the best high schools are realizing that if such libraries are to render their greatest service to the schools, trained librarians must be in charge of them.

Now, the attention is on the elementary school library. This is evidenced by the consideration of standards for elementary school libraries on the part of leaders in national library and educational associations; by emphasis on the elementary school library in courses of instruction in higher institutions of learning; and by an increase in the amount of bibliographical material dealing with the subject.

A joint committee from the American Library Association and the National Education Association prepared a set of library standards for elementary schools with enrolments of 500 to 2000. These standards were published in 1925 by the American Library Association. The committee has been continued for the purpose of preparing standards for rural elementary schools of various types—small, medium, and large.

The School of Library Science in Columbia University advertises courses designed to give superintendents and principals an understanding of the function of the library in elementary and secondary schools. Similar courses are given in other library schools.

The library courses for elementary school principals which were held in connection with the summer meetings of the National Education Association at the University of Washington in Seattle in 1927, and at the University of Minneapolis in 1928 are significant of the interest of elementary school principals in the school library problem. The specific purpose of these courses was to emphasize the need of better library facilities for elementary schools.

The amount of literature on any subject is an index to the interest in it. The past few years has been marked by a considerable increase in the literature dealing specifically with the problem of the elementary school library. This literature is found chiefly in articles in library and educational journals; in publications of state educational and library agencies, the American Library Association, and the United States Office of Education. Recently two books have appeared on the subject. One of them, "The Elementary School Library," by William A. King, was published in 1929. This book, as the title indicates, deals exclusively with the problem of the elementary school library. The other, "The Library in the School," by Lucile F. Fargo, published in 1930, considers in one volume, library service for schools of both elementary and high-school levels.

These trends indicate that the idea of the library as an integral part of the elementary school is not only accepted but is gaining ground. It is the opinion of quite a number of writers on the subject that in the future the library will be much more an integral part of the school than it is at present. Dean Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University gives us something to think about along this line. He says:

> For the education of children we have schools. Into these we have introduced libraries. For the education of adults we have libraries. Into these we have intro-

duced schools—the time may come when there will be neither libraries in schools nor schools in libraries, but a new educational institution will emerge which combines the best features of both.[1]

The introduction of libraries into schools is the result of modern educational developments. In this progress is to be found the vital values in elementary school libraries. I shall now discuss the values of libraries in relation to four of the modern educational developments.

Changes in School Curriculums

The modern philosophy of education is bringing about great changes in school curriculums. These changes manifest themselves in a new type of organization, a reduction in the use of formal textbooks and a demand for school activities that are in tune with life situations.

The old courses of study are organized about school subjects such as reading, arithmetic, history, etc. In the more progressive courses there has been considerable combination and rearrangement of subjectmatter resulting in the organization of large units of content in English, art, geography, and other subjects. For example, a unit in one of these modern courses of study on, "Introducing Greece through Olympic Games," brought out such questions as these: What amusements had the Greeks? What wars did they fight? What books and music had they? How did they dress? What did they eat? How did they educate their children? What was their religion? What occupations did they have? In finding the source of materials for this unit, it was necessary for the children to make excursions into such fields as athletics, history, literature, art, clothing, food, education, mythology, religion, government, geography, and sociology.

Each unit of organization in these progressive courses of study usually contains many references to books and periodicals. Therefore, in order to put into execution such courses of study schools must have access to libraries.

Generally, the more use that elementary schools make of libraries the less use they make of formal textbooks. In a curriculum experiment conducted a few years ago in the elementary school of the School of Education at the University of Missouri, a library of 3000 volumes was largely a substitute for conventional textbooks. This experiment, says J. L. Meriam who conducted it, exhibited a school policy clearly in harmony with a present tendency in our public schools, namely, a greater use of the library and a relatively less use of the traditional textbook.[2]

The more progressive courses of study emphasize current developments in home, community, and national life. For this reason no course of study can be uptodate. It must constantly be adjusted to meet new situations—

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[1] Russell, William F. *Educational Developments and the Library.* School Library Yearbook No. 2. American Library Association, Chicago, 1928. 49-53.

[2] Meriam, J. L. "Library and Textbook Service." Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals. National Education Association. *The Ninth Yearbook,* p. 593-601. April, 1930.

a Lindbergh crossing the Atlantic in an airplane, the advent of the "talkies," a Byrd expedition to the South Pole, a five-power naval conference, a new planet swimming into our ken, the experiment of the American School of the Air. Textbooks do not contain information on situations that will develop next week or on inventions that may be brought to light next month. Yet these situations and inventions may vitally effect and even transform our manner of living. Where else must the school go for published information relative to current problems and developments but to libraries?

New Technics in Teaching

Improved courses of study with their realignment of subjectmatter, their references to many books and periodicals and emphasis on life situations have brought about new technics in teaching. Today, elementary school children, like high-school and university students are encouraged to read, observe, experiment, investigate, and organize for class discussion the information thus acquired.

The practise of requiring children to memorize the contents of a few pages of a textbook is being replaced in the more progressive schools by laboratory methods that encourage children to make their own investigations through the medium of books, magazines, newspapers, pictures, museums, and personal interviews. A single textbook on a subject, no matter how complete it may be, cannot supply all of the data necessary in solving the many problems arising from a project. There must be access to books and other reading matter treating of many subjects.

The tendency towards individualization of instruction in our teaching procedures makes many books on the various subjects taught in the schools a necessity. This is particularly true in the teaching of children with superior mental abilities. To keep such children marking time while their classmates catch up with them inculcates habits of laziness and indifference. Such children should be given the opportunity to delve deeper, through reading, into their fields of special interests, than their classmates. It has been demonstrated that exceptionally bright children read on an average three or four times as many books as children of average intelligence.[1]

Modern teaching technics assume that the cultivation on the part of the children of selfreliance and initiative are as important as the accumulation of facts. Where else do children have a better opportunity to cultivate self-reliance and initiative than in the library searching for information for the solution of their problems?

Children must be taught to acquire skill in handling both libraries and books if they are to make the best possible use of them. It is one of the objectives of good teaching that these skills shall be acquired to some degree in the elementary school. To teach them effectively a new type of teacher is necessary—a teacher technically trained in libraries and books. This brings us to a discussion of the school librarian.

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[1] Terman, Lewis and Lima, Margaret, *Children's Reading*, p. 56. D. Appleton and Co., New York, N. Y.

The School Librarian

It is impossible for the library to function as an integral part of the school without the school librarian; and the influence of the school librarian is one of the most vital values of the elementary school library. It is the school librarian, in cooperation with the teacher, who helps the elementary school child acquire the skills in the use of libraries and books that will help him carry on his education alone if necessary, through libraries. In many of our large city school systems the school librarian learns to know the child and his needs far better than his teachers for she is closely associated with him through his entire elementary school course while his teachers change every year.

Progressive movements in education have magnified the importance of the school librarian. So few are the persons qualified for this position that it is impossible for many schools to find adequately trained persons. Most of the few that are available are being placed in high schools.

A school librarian needs a training particularly fitted for a particular kind of job. That such a person should have educational qualifications equal to those of teachers and technical library training in addition, is universally accepted. Some schools require experience in teaching in addition. It is necessary for a successful school librarian to have a knowledge of the school curriculum and of the teaching methods of the various teachers in the school that use the library over which she presides. And above all, a school librarian should understand and love children.

The child depends upon the librarian for a knowledge of the use of the library catalog. It is the librarian who stimulates the child to utilize the knowledge that the teacher has given him concerning the intelligent use of tables of contents and indexes in books rather than looking up information for the child herself. And how important it is that such skills as these be acquired while in the elementary school. Who of us that has taught in high schools have not found children laboriously turning the pages of books trying to locate information on given topics, apparently ignorant of such things as indexes?

It is the librarian who introduces the child to such reference books as atlases, encyclopedias, The World Almanac, Readers' Guide, etc., and teaches him how to use them. It is the librarian who cooperates with the teacher in stimulating the child to read and in developing within him discrimination in the selection of books. It is the librarian who introduces the teacher to the wealth of printed materials in the library which will aid him in the development of his school projects, and who informs him of new publications that come to the library. It is the librarian who frequently discovers the peculiar interests of the child through his "browsing" in the library and who because of this discovery is often able to aid the teacher in making an adjustment for the child in his school work that the teacher could not have made alone. So in many other ways, the librarian is constantly reinforcing the work of the teacher. In fact, today the librarian is indispensable to the modern school system.

Enrichment of Life

One of the aims of elementary education is the enrichment of the life of the child. Nowhere can the child better acquire the characteristics that will enrich his life than in his contacts with the library. Reading fosters ambition, arouses new interests, widens the intellectual horizon, stimulates imagination, cultivates an inquiring mind, and gives one the tools for continuing education.

A knowledge of the biographies of the world's heroes and heroines fosters the ambitions of youth. Boys and girls are naturally hero worshippers and it is during the elementary school period that they should be exposed to biography. What boy in reading the life of Washington does not say to himself "I want to be like that man"? What girl reading Louise Alcott's "Little Women" does not covet a personality like that of "Jo"? And in wishing to become like their heroes or heroines boys and girls become like them at least for a moment. Lowell expresses the idea in his poem called "Longing" when he says:

The thing we long for, that we are
For one transcendent moment
Before the Present poor and bare
Can make its sneering comment.

It is in the repetition of our desires to reach an ideal that we finally partially accomplish it. We grow like the things we think about. So boys and girls continually wishing to become like the good men and women that they have learned to know between the covers of books, finally acquire their characteristics. Lowell expresses this thought farther on in his "Longing" with this couplet:

Our lives must climb from hope to hope
And realize our longing.

Daily practise on the part of the child in looking up material for his school projects is sure to arouse new interests. For example, the casual stumbling of a child upon the Cornell Rural School Leaflet entitled, "A Travelog of Birds," may kindle an interest in birds that had hitherto been dormant. And so it might be along many other lines. The illustrations can be multiplied indefinitely. The mechanically-minded boy's interest is aroused by an article on "How to make an Airplane."

What teacher has not noticed the difference between the child who comes from a home in which the contents of books and magazines are read and talked about and one who comes from a home where such a situation does not exist. The child from the former home draws from a fountain of knowledge that is not available for the latter. His intellectual horizon is wider. This is one reason why youth should acquire the habit of using libraries while in school.

It has been said that to those small libraries in the little fishing villages of Norway we owe Rölvaag's "Giants in the Earth," that epic of the struggle of the pioneers in subduing the plains of our great middlewest. It was in the books that Rölvaag read in the libraries of the Norway fishing villages that he learned to know the verities of life, and that his imagination was stirred to create literature of his own. Another presentday author, Fannie Hurst, says that to the public library in St. Louis, the city in which she grew up, she owes the greatest mental stimulus of her life.

A democracy, in order to realize its ideals, is dependent upon people who are capable of thinking for themselves—people who reason, people who ask "why" and "wherefore," people who have inquiring minds. May we not hope that as libraries become more and more integral parts of schools there will be many more people who will think for themselves and a far less number who blindly follow ideas that are handed down to them.

The greatest value to the child in forming the library habit while in the elementary school is that he has acquired a habit of using books as tools which will be beneficial throughout life. If he continues his education through high school and college it can make of him a superior student. If his schooling ends with the elementary school he has the tools for educating himself. All education is, after all, self education. The person who drops reading after leaving school is uneducated, even though that person may have a string of college degrees after his name. The child who leaves school with a taste for wholesome reading permanently established and who is given the opportunity of gratifying that taste can hardly fail to make a happy, useful citizen.

Conclusion

In concluding it is well to ask ourselves how children react to an educational program that makes libraries such important factors in the schools. From the evidences at hand it appears that the right chord has been struck.

The supervisor of school libraries in Oakland, California, says, "The children are learning to choose books; to use books; to keep books in order; to loan them unselfishly; and to make the library and the classroom better places to be lived in."[1]

The following incident told by Marguerite Kirk from an oral English class in a Newark, New Jersey, school, with 95 percent of its pupils of foreign parentage, illustrates how the children in that city use the library and museum as aids in vitalizing their school projects.

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[1] Madison, Elizabeth. "The Principal and the School Library." Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals. National Education Association. *Ninth Yearbook,* April 1930. p. 579.

A small boy who had made a wearisome speech in the oral English class received this criticism from his mates as he sat down: "It wouldn't hurt him to have gone to the library and museum and got some pictures and things."

This small boy was followed by a classmate who announced "China" as his topic. The classmate, says Miss Kirk, was armed with an assortment of articles that would do credit to a returned missionary. A coolie hat, chop sticks, tiny shoes, dolls in costume, and colored pictures of Chinese scenes were produced at the proper points in the narrative. The interest of the class was held until the end and even continued after the dismissal when an opportunity was given to handle the articles.[1]

One has only to visit schools in counties with efficient county libraries to be convinced of the vitalizing effect of libraries to schools that are located in places remote from public libraries.

Miss Askew, the state librarian of New Jersey, says that she does not know how children can see out of the sides of schoolhouses in which there are no windows. But they do, she says, for the county librarians report that when the book vans approach such school houses the children rush out exclaiming with joy, "The library's come! The library's come!"

Not long ago I visited a one-teacher rural school in Allen County, Indiana, in company with the school librarian. As we approached the school house we noticed a few children playing ball in the school yard. When we drove into the school yard the children suddenly stopped playing and this conversation was heard:

"No, it isn't."

"Well, it is—I guess I know."

"Anyway she isn't there—*Why She Is!*"

And with a shout the children gathered about the school librarian with a request for "Raggylug" the story that was promised on her last visit to the school. Eagerly they asked their teacher to begin school immediately, and before she could ring the bell the children were in their seats breathlessly waiting for those words which are magic to children—"Once upon a time."

VITAL VALUES IN EDUCATION—SUPERINTENDENT'S POINT OF VIEW—ABSTRACT

WALTER B. BORDEN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SOUTH BEND, IND.

For more than a century in our nation we have clung to the fundamental principle that, "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools, and the means of education shall ever be encouraged."

At all times and in all places in our country, education has been held as a necessity for the fullest development of every individual and for society as a whole. The question that confronts us as superintendents and leaders in education is not so much, "Shall we educate?" but "What shall we study and what and how shall we teach?"

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[1] Kirk, Marguerite. "Cooperation of Schools with the Library and Museum of Newark, N. J." *Bulletin,* Department of Elementary School Principals. National Education Association, October, 1926. pp. 32-37.

I. One of the most important "Values in Education" is to acquaint one with what has been. The Egyptian, the Babylonian, the Roman, the Grecian, the Hindu, the Jew, the German—each has endeavored in his own way to work out his individual problems and to hold fast to that which was good in his educational philosophy. Each one of these nations has produced its great leaders in education as well as in other lines, and they have left their influence and philosophy with us.

The principles of these leaders are records of history. We can make them a part of our lives by the study of nations and biographies. Their record *is history.*

Educational training and development should help one to interpret history. We do not study our history and kindred subjects today as we did when many of us were in school. Our educational experience has taught us better. History should not be a mere accumulation of facts about the past, but the information gathered should be the means for developing a broadened view, a more tolerant spirit, and a fuller life.

We are what we are today largely because of the past, but we should be able to interpret the lessons of the past—social, intellectual, and moral—for the betterment of the world as it exists today.

No other country has so devoutly believed in and so enthusiastically pledged itself to free and universal education as has the United States. In this respect she leads all nations of the world.

The maintenance of our complex civilization now depends upon the developing of a real educational system. President Hoover recently said in a speech on Education as a National Asset:

> From generation to generation we hand on our vast equipment, our knowledge of how to run it, and our stock of intellectual and spiritual ideals. If we were to suppress our educational system for a single generation, the equipment would decay, the most of our people would die of starvation, and intellectually, and spiritually we would slip back four thousand years in human progress.

One of the most important vital values of education, then, is that it fits us to understand and interpret the past.

II. Another very essential "Value in Education" is the adjustment of the individual to what is. Education should give to every individual the ability to adjust himself to his environment. The general public is not competent to participate in a democracy. This has been attributed by several writers to the fact that our citizenry is not trained. Each individual in a community attains a different height of intelligence, and it is impossible for any community to rise above the intellectual level of the individuals composing it. Most persons really do not have opinions of their own about affairs.

One of the vital values of education is to give an individual the background so that he will become competent to meet situations that confront him. There will be difficulties to be overcome.

One problem is that a great many persons are incompetent because of lack of time to devote to the affairs of the day. The average business man hardly has time to give to the problems of the day so that he will be able to judge them rightly. If the business man is not competent to pass on the public matters of the day, how can we expect the less competent thousands of other citizens to do so.

There are the laboring men who know little and care less about the problems of democracy. After a day of monotonous labor in the factory, doing the same thing in the same way, we can hardly expect them to come home to ponder over the public affairs. They do not take the time even if they have the ability.

There is a class whose members are competent but who lack the interest. They have the ability to study situations but they are more interested in golf, favorite clubs, and the like. Therefore they are disqualified because of lack of interest.

Aside from this large number of American citizens who are incompetent because of lack of time and interest, there is a vast group who lack the background for the demands made by society upon the average citizen today. They need the training given by education. In them educators are especially interested. The population of the United States is one of the most heterogeneous of any nation in the world. To try to group the reactions of such a heterogeneous mass is a problem and requires much in the way of educational training.

Another problem is that of emotionalism. Most people can see things only from their own point of view. They are unable to look at a problem in which they have a part without prejudice. Education should help such persons to be open-minded.

The emotional appeal is always resorted to when something vital is at stake, and it is always applied to the uneducated, the untrained in thinking. An example of this has been the campaign by certain business interests to defeat child labor bills. These interests have often said, "The state is taking away the right of the children from the parents." The appeal to the emotion is a good sort of way to get action, especially by those who are untrained and uneducated. In this connection propaganda plays a great part.

There are several objective difficulties that enter into adjustment. Education will be of vital use in solving these difficulties.

First: The character of modern life and the speed and disorder of the world have a tendency to dull the power of discrimination. We need training to meet these situations. The rush and noise that is continually going on, the machinery of the factories, the scurrying mobs of the city, and the hundreds of things that crowd into the day's life make thought a burden. Under such conditions serious contemplation is nearly impossible.

Second: Time and space are not considered. Many people do not take "time" into consideration. They live by the old maxim, What was good enough for my grandfather is good enough for me." They fail to take into consideration that other things must change with the change in material conditions. Education will greatly help every individual to solve this problem for himself.

Third: The eclipse of the public by modern industry. We are in the machine age today. Our thinking therefore must be different. Common interests have had much to do in the governing of behavior, but industry has so changed everything, and so complicated all forms of society, that the small community has almost entirely gone. Today people must think in larger terms. The entire country, even the whole world, is intercommunicable and interdependent both materially and commercially. Modern industry and invention have made this possible. In order to keep pace, education is absolutely vital and important.

Fourth: Education should enable us to discriminate between truth and propaganda. Take "news" for example. A great number of people are dependent upon the modern newspaper for their knowledge of public affairs. It is important, therefore, that the information thus obtained be correct information. Unfortunately this is not always the case. Many of the agencies of public opinion offer a big field for dishonest propaganda. Education should assist one to discriminate, but often even the best educated are deceived.

There are two kinds of propaganda—honest and dishonest. Honest propaganda is not always valid, but people know it is propaganda—advertising for instance. But dishonest propaganda does not carry the label at all; people accept it as the truth. This makes it doubly hard to fight. Propaganda is nearly always organized to appeal to the emotion and to develop sentiment and to create false impression by giving out misinformation. This may be illustrated by the terrible stories of German atrocities given out during the world war.

Headlines play a big part in news. Many people read the headlines and nothing else. During the late war Munsterberg said, "Let me write the headlines and I care not who writes the articles under the headlines." Education should be such that it will develop a people capable of discernment.

III. A third very "Vital Value in Education" is that it prepares one for what is to be. Learning is a lifelong process. William H. Kilpatrick says that society faces a problem today quite different from that of the education of former times, and that "society" is meeting this problem.

In addition to the school there is now a host of these educational influences that are of great importance. These include magazines, radio, library service, newspapers, women's clubs, luncheon clubs like Rotary and Kiwanis, Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls. These are all agencies that have come into existence for the purpose of continuing education in a civilization that is undergoing a rapid change.

Our education to be vital with respect to the preparation of what is to be must teach the children in our schools how to really live; how to organize facts learned and knowledge obtained; how to really think.

Education should be the means of inspiring in a person respect for himself. Next to the discovery of God, the greatest discovery any individual ever makes is the discovery of himself; finding the particular qualities and characteristics which are manifested and reflected in his personality; finding his own particular mission in life.

Our education to be vital must train people to know themselves; to think for themselves. This is developing individuality. If we could not and did not develop personalities different from the common mold, our society would not advance. Through education these various types of personalities are developed. This makes our civilization progress. In this lies our hope for the future. It brings new developments in the field of science, literature, art, commerce, and government.

Every superintendent is interested in his school, in what he is doing to develop every child in his school system for a successful life. But what is a successful life? What proportion of human beings are successful? The answer is entirely a matter of standards.

Success is not always a matter of entire life. The greatness of Gladstone and Lincoln was not a matter of single acts; each grew by years. Not so with Bismarck who outlived his historical self, or with Napoleon who, in all the annals of mankind yields place to Caesar, saw Waterloo after Austerlitz.

Success is not always a matter of general accomplishments. Washington was successful alike as a soldier, as a legislator, as an executive, and as a man of affairs. Not so with Webster who had but one surpassing power, that of persuasion of men to high thinking of the state.

Success is not always a matter of recognition at the time. What Greek would have dreamed that Aristotle would rule the intellectual world for 2000 years?

Success is seldom evidenced by the accumulation of property. Who cares whether Copernicus or Columbus left fortunes? Jesus had not "where to rest his head."

Besides the development of individual personality, our whole life is centered around personal and social relationships so we must teach the child to live happily with others. Our civilization is essentially social. People only can arouse our full responses. So children must develop a respect for the personalities of others. Boys and girls must become social beings—physically, mentally, morally. They must learn to play with others; later to work harmoniously with others. Of course they should have their own ideas, but they must learn to respect the ideas of others.

Education should make us deeply considerate of the personality of others. There are many mechanically smooth-running households, many schools ruled by iron hands, and some nations governed autocratically, (Italy at present for instance) that are so because the rest concerned yield to some autocratic tyrant.

Reverence for personality of others is the greatest test and also the best standard for friendships. Emerson had this in mind when he, in one of the best things he ever uttered, said, "Our chief want in life is somebody who shall make us do what we can. This is the service of a friend."

Education will create respect and reverence for spiritual things. After all these are the only things of value.

There is a very general demand that our schools and colleges do more than they have done for moral training and character building of our pupils. The demand is as vague as it is general, but the hopeful feature is the evidence that people do appreciate the need.

Since the school is universal in its reach, more and more responsibility has been placed upon it the past few years. Practically all children come under its influence. We certainly must have some agency to train the youth to lives of virtue. Matthew Arnold often said, "Conduct is three-fourths of life." This is an understatement. The most vital value of education is to emphasize that "Conduct and Reverence for God" is *all* of life.

VITAL VALUES IN EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

W. O. THOMPSON, PRESIDENT EMERITUS, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

The subject assigned for this evening has in it three important words. There is, however, no desire to make any effort at a technical or professional definition of any one of these words. We shall proceed upon the ideas these words carry over to the ordinary average person. As I see it we might just as well have expressed it as life values in education or values related to life in education. The emphasis, therefore, will be that education does have some appreciable values related to our every day living. The discovery of these values and their application to life will constitute the everyday problem of the school.

My consideration of this theme leads me to say that the school is a more systematic, more professional, and perhaps more technical way of securing the same results sought in ordinary living. The child for the first five years of the preschool age has made an important contribution to his own future. This experience of early childhood is, of course, outside the jurisdiction of the school. The school must take its pupils as they are at a given age and do the best they can with whoever comes.

As a background for a discussion of these values may I direct your attention to radical changes that have occurred in the process of early education. The teachers of two generations ago followed the traditional method which, for convenience, we may call the A B C method. This was applied not only to the matter of spelling and reading but to other subjects. The detailed attention to minor things developed a certain type of mind and a certain method of approach. In these days we think in words rather than in the letters of the alphabet. The child of today grasps a word almost as quickly as it does the idea for which the word stands. All this has been done without particular loss of accuracy. Meantime the unit of thinking has passed from the letter or the syllable to the word or phrase. This, as I see it, is little short of a revolution in the methods of the school as compared to a generation ago.

A second rather radical change has been found in the development of the laboratory method of education. This is based upon the value of experimentation. The school is conceived of as a laboratory in which all educational processes are matters of observation, experimentation, and test. This practically means the introduction of the scientific method in elementary education. In the subjects where this method is applied the older method of either oral or written examination has lost its prestige if not its place. Throughout the experience, even without a careful check on the actual results it had been shown that the long established method of examination had failed to accomplish the ends sought. The criticism here was not against either teacher or pupil but practically against the system of trying by a formal examination to discover the life progress in the pupil. We have passed from these older types of examination to other methods more suitable to the laboratory.

There are three things that emerge in every well conducted laboratory. The first is the cultivation of careful observation. The object here is to see things clearly; to see them just as they are. This is regarded as essential to all progress in education.

The second is the development of the power of description. An accurate report on what is clearly seen is equally essential in every laboratory exercise. All elementary teachers will recognize that the stories of the younger pupils and the descriptive exercises are designed to do two things for the child, namely, to develop initiative and to demand a clear intellectual concept at the outset. In the next place the pupil is required to develop an ability to describe what has been seen with sufficient precision that it may be universally recognized. This provides the basis for generalization.

A third factor is that of comparison. This calls for a comparative judgment between competing objects. Two wellknown objects are compared one with the other and a judgment offered. This ability to institute comparisons, to draw conclusions, and to render definite judgments is the requirement of every scientific laboratory in the country. It is interesting to observe that in the elementary school we are dealing with the same universals as the most advanced students of science are dealing. The elementary school simply does the thing and says nothing. The more advanced school is apt to emphasize the fact by directing attention to it. Are we not therefore warranted in saying that the immediate product of the elementary school in its intellectual development involving these three factors is presenting educational values of the most vital character? We say this because the methods here used continue throughout life and have a very living connection with the development and progress of the individual. I should be disposed to say that the development of modern science putting emphasis on these three things has probably stimulated the methods of elementary education to do the same thing and thus introduce at the beginning of the pupil's life certain values that like the multiplication table become part of the permanent intellectual equipment of subsequent mature life. It is evident therefore that this change in elementary teaching has introduced the scientific method at the very outset of education.

Assuming for the moment what I think we all believe, that this scientific method represents substantial progress in education, we may conclude that there is a very intimate relation between the introduction of this method in the elementary schools and the wider range of the intellectual life of the students in the upper grades. My own personal observations will confirm this judgment.

The test of values—When one considers the endless debate of the authorities in economics on the doctrine of values there need be little surprise that the use of such terms as a measure of educational experience would lead to some indefinite thinking. Education is so definitely and inevitably intellectual, social, and spiritual, dealing with the invisible that one cannot escape the feeling of uncertainty. The most that we can do, as it seems to me, is by the use of such comparisons as are available determine whether or not the methods used in education contribute generously to the development of intellectual power and of social efficiency.

The belief in heredity is so well nigh universal that all of us proceed upon the basis of a certain initiative as the equipment of the child. Our parents spoke of it as a gift of nature. Perhaps they called it common sense, mother wit, or such other evidence of intellectual activity as led them to discern intellectual alertness. They did this in such a way as to discriminate between the unusually gifted and the average child. In nearly every instance people felt the importance of opening the way for the gifted child. The appeal was instantaneous. More was expected of such a child than from the ordinary average boy or girl. This conception in a way determines the goal for all education; namely, the development of the power of initiative, the unfolding of the native ability of the child, the widening of the intellectual horizon much after the fashion of the opening flower. I know of no values superior to these or more fundamentally related to the quality of life we seek to develop.

In addition to this intellectual grasp there are other qualities which would seem to be vital also. The man on the street describes these as sound mindedness, as intellectual balance, or perhaps as intellectual strength. By these he undertakes to set up before us the ability to make appropriate use of whatever intellectual power the individual may achieve. One is constantly surprised when he puts to the test the ability of the modern child to render judgments, to express conclusions, and to manifest a certain assurance in his intellectual processes that indicate strength and vigor of intellect. In a limited way I have sought to discover these qualities in the minds of young children and have been surprised and pleased with the practical results. I regard these as life values. They give me courage to believe in the future achievements and in the intellectual balance of the rising generation.

Curriculum values—Discussion of the values of the curriculum has been inevitable. We could not avoid comparison of the values of reading, arithmetic, history, mathematics, and science. This discussion has led to a consideration of what we think of as the doctrine of transfer of values. The curriculum was examined and advocated on the ground that certain recognized values were possible by the use of this or that particular subject. There has been some shift of opinion as to the relative values in these subjects. The personal equation is so dominating in certain pupils as to make it difficult to determine whether their intellectual progress was because of certain subjects or in spite of them. Individual examples do not warrant universal conclusion. The curriculum discussion increases, as you come up the several grades. Certain university authorities have notified us that within five years there will be a complete revolution in the university curriculum. One might modestly say that this revolution began a generation ago and has never had a vacation. Meantime young men and young women have shown a high order of ability in the particular callings of life to which they have given themselves. This would seem to intimate that certain vital values in their early education have been definitely related to their life processes. The curriculum has a very definite value as a means to the ends sought.

At this point it may be intimated that some criticism of education in the United States has been directed to the fact that it is adjusted to the average mind rather than to the superior mind. This criticism proceeds upon the assumption that this limitation tends to mediocrity and in a very direct way discourages the progress of the gifted. Doubtless that criticism will carry some weight and may result in further consideration of educational values, of educational policies, and possibly of the reconstruction of the curriculum. As intimated earlier in this address the difficulty of measuring accurately intellectual results is so great as to make it possible at every point to differ in judgment as to the results actually achieved.

In general we shall agree that the distributed curriculum of the modern school covering some survey of language, science, history, and the like has proved a most efficient instrument of developing educational values. The relation of these values to life is sufficiently intimate to warrant us in saying that the modern school curriculum gives due consideration to the doctrine of vital values.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Columbus Meeting

The Department of Elementary School Pricipals held two general sessions; one Monday afternoon, June 30, and the other Tuesday afternoon, July 1, at the First Congregational Church. At both sessions the music was rendered by the pupils of the public schools. The programs of both sessions were as follows:

Vital Values in Education

First Session

ARITHMETIC AND ITS VALUE TO OUR SCHOOLS
Belle Torrey Scott, principal, Fulton School, Columbus, Ohio.

READING AND ITS VALUE TO OUR SCHOOLS
Margaret L. White, general supervisor, Public Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

ENGLISH AND ITS VALUE TO OUR SCHOOLS
George F. Cassell, principal, Penn School, Chicago, Ill.

FUNCTIONAL VALUES OF GEOGRAPHY IN THE CURRICULUM
A. E. Parkins, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

Second Session

GREETINGS
E. Ruth Pyrtle, principal, Bancroft School, Lincoln, Nebraska, president, N. E. A.

VITAL VALUES IN EDUCATION—UNIVERSITY POINT OF VIEW
H. C. McKown, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

VITAL VALUES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARIES
Edith A. Lathrop, assistant specialist in school libraries, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

VITAL VALUES IN EDUCATION—SUPERINTENDENT'S POINT OF VIEW
Walter B. Borden, superintendent of schools, South Bend, Ind.

THE PURPOSE AND PLAN OF THE 1931 YEARBOOK
Isabel Tucker, principal, Shenandoah School, St. Louis, Mo., chairman, Editorial Committee.

Business Session

The Report of the Nominating Committee was given, and accepted. Officers elected for the ensuing year are indicated on p. 334.

At the business session held on Tuesday afternoon the following resolutions were adopted:

RESOLVED, That the

1. Department of Elementary School Principals of the N. E. A. believes there should be created a Department of Education, with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet.

2. Department of Elementary School Principals of the N. E. A., believes that periodicals that carry tobacco advertising should be excluded from the schools.

3. Department of Elementary School principals of the N. E. A. requests all teachers to continue their efforts to keep before the children the harmful effects of alcohol on health and reaffirms its support of the Eighteenth Amendment and urges its impartial enforcement.

4. Department of Elementary School Principals, realizing that reading matter which portrays a degraded standard of home and community life has a deteriorating influence upon the minds and morals of youth, exert every effort to banish this type of readng from places where pupils congregate, and that we supply them with the type of literature that makes for the highest type of citizenship.

5. Department of Elementary School Principals of the N. E. A. believes that the "Elementary School" offers a splendid opportunity for a life of service and its duties require as high a degree of intelligence and qualification as do the duties of the schools where the older children are taught. Its teachers and principals should be as well educated and trained as are the teachers and principals of the other schools. The Department also believes that the large elementary school will be found the most satisfactory in the future. The large elementary school plants should be as large and as well built and as completely equipped as are the other plants. We are asking that the younger children be given an equal chance and a square deal in their educational opportunities.

6. Department of Elementary School Principals of the N. E. A. believes that the time is here when the Department should take a more vital interest in Health Education and that a committee should be appointed.

B. E. KOONCE, Tulsa, Okla.
H. G. MASTERS, Pittsburgh, Pa.
W. T. LONGSHORE, Kansas City, Mo., *Chairman.*

On Monday and Tuesday mornings breakfasts were held at the Deshler-Wallick Hotel. These were very well attended. Such breakfasts afford splendid opportunities for members of the Department to become better acquainted and to exchange ideas. Officers and committee chairmen gave reports, outlining some of the activities of the Department. Mr. Frank Hubbard, director of research, gave a splendid report of the work of research.

The Department closed its meeting in Columbus with a most enjoyable dinner at the Deshler-Wallick Hotel on Tuesday night. Music was furnished by a group of boys and girls from the Junior High School, and community singing was directed and accompanied by Mr. and Mrs. Heinz. Dr. W. O. Thompson, president emeritus of Ohio State University spoke on "Vital Values in Education."

CASSIE F. ROYS, Secretary.

Executive Committee Meeting, June 30, 1930

The meeting was called to order by the President, Herbert C. Hansen. The following members were present: Herbert C. Hansen, president; Jas. R. Floyd, second vicepresident; Mrs. Margaret M. Smith, fifth vicepresident; Cassie F. Roys, secretary, Elizabeth McCormick, Earl Laing, and Emma Brookes, members of the Executive Committee, Frank Hubbard, director of Research, and Isabel Tucker, chairman of the Editorial Committee for the Yearbook of 1931.

The minutes of the meetings at Atlantic City were read and approved.

Miss Tucker, chairman of the Editorial Committee, reported concerning the work of the committee on the 1931 Yearbook.

Mr. Hubbard, director of Research, submitted suggestions concerning the activities and personnel of the research committee in the future. These were discussed informally.

It was moved by Mrs. Smith and seconded by Miss Brookes that the new member of the editorial committee be appointed by the president early in the fall to sit with the committee at the February meeting. Carried.

It was moved by Miss McCormick, seconded by Mr. Floyd, that the members of the Executive Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals deeply appreciate the untiring efforts of the Editorial Committee, Miss Tucker, Mr. Gist, and Mr. Laing, in connection with the 1930 Yearbook; of the secretary, Miss Roys, in connection with the Bulletin; and recognizes the valuable services ot the Research Director, Mr. Hubbard, in the preparation of both publications. Carried.

A discussion of the financial statement followed. It was moved by Miss Brookes, seconded by Mrs. Smith that the President, Mr. Hansen, be authorized to put in an expense account for 1928-29-30. Carried.

It was moved by Miss McCormick and seconded by Mr. Laing that the policy adopted at the Atlanta meeting be continued and that Mr. Hansen become a member of the National Council of Education, his term expiring 1936. Carried.

It was moved by Miss McCormick and seconded by Miss Brookes that Mr. Hansen be our official representative to the Iowa state meeting in November, 1930, including expenses. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Laing, seconded by Miss Brookes that a committee on enrolment be appointed by the president, and that the Department look forward to the advisability of using our permanent fund for the purpose of defraying the expense of research and field work which would be especially concerned with enrolment. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Floyd and seconded by Miss Brookes that a vote of thanks be extended to Mr. Ritow, chairman of National Enrolment Committee. Carried.

Meeting adjourned.

CASSIE F. ROYS, *Secretary.*

Executive Committee Meeting, July 2, 1930

Those present were Herbert C. Hansen, President; James R. Floyd, Elizabeth McCormick, Frank Hubbard and Cassie F. Roys, Secretary.

The President made some very helpful suggestions to the incoming officers concerning the work of the Department in the future.

It was moved by Miss McCormick and seconded by Mr. Floyd that all necessary expenses of the convention be met by the Department. Carried.

A discussion concerning the sending of the Research Bulletins of the National Education Association to the members of the Department followed. It was moved by Miss Roys, seconded by Miss McCormick that the policy of mailing these Research Bulletins to the members of the Department be continued. Carried.

There was a general discussion concerning the transferring of certain moneys to the permanent fund of the National Education Association. It was moved by Miss McCormick, seconded by Mr. Floyd that the retiring president be authorized to investigate the transfer of certain moneys to the permanent fund of the National Education Association and if necessary take steps to secure the return of said funds to the surplus fund or our own department. Unanimously carried.

The method of making reservations for the dinners of the Department was discussed. It was moved by Mr. Floyd that the sale of tickets for these dinners be closed at noon on the day of the dinner and that the guarantee to the hotel be for the number of tickets that were sold at noon. Carried. Mr. Floyd also moved that the price of tickets should be such that it will include all the necessary expenses of the dinner and that there shall be no expense to the Department.. Unanimously carried.

A vote of thanks and hearty appreciation from the Executive Committee in behalf of the Department was extended to the retiring President, Mr. Herbert C. Hansen, for his splendid and efficient work during the past year.

It was moved and seconded that $100 be appropriated for the clerical expenses of the members of the Editorial Committee. Carried.

The president expressed his hearty appreciation for the cordial support and splendid cooperation of all members of the Executive Committee, the Editorial Committee, the National Education Association, and Mr. Frank Hubbard, director of research.

The Secretary was authorized to express an appreciation of hospitality to the Columbus hosts.

Meeting adjourned.

CASSIE F. ROYS, *Secretary.*

Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY EDUCATION grew out of a meeting of the Froebel Institute of North America, which met in connection with the Association's meeting in Madison, Wisconsin, in 1884. See *Proceedings*, 1884:74. This Department cooperates with the Association for Childhood Education, the National Council of Primary Education and the National Committee on Nursery Schools. These three organizations cooperate in publishing a monthly magazine—*Childhood Education.*

The officers of the Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Caroline I. Townsend, Instructor in Education, University of California, Los Angeles, Calif.; *Vicepresident*, Nelle Curtis, Instructor in Education, Ojai Valley School, Ojai, Calif.; *Secretary*, Mrs. Ruth Hackett, Instructor in Education, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.

Facts relating to the establishment of this department and records of its meetings will be found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1884: 74
1885:349-368
1886:500-559
1887:331-391
1888:325-359
1889:443-482
1890:545-581
1891:529-568
1892:253-303
1893:321-381
1894:679-704
1895:510-560
1896:471-514
1897:584-614
1898:589-620
1899:530-575
1900:365-403
1901:500-540
1902:409-430
1903:377-407
1904:415-437
1905:341-373
1906:626-630
1907:455-475
1908:501-543
1909:437-457
1910:377-417
1911:477-517
1912:607-633
1913:425-447
1914:405-421
1915:629-671
1916:289-311
1917:417-431
1918:151-157
1919:171-179
1920:191-203
1921:461-471
1922:969-987
1923:705-719
1924:583-597
1925:478-504
1926:495-527
1927:457-472
1928:413-433
1929:425-448

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES WILL GUIDE TEACHERS TO APPRECIATE "VITAL VALUES" FOR CHILDREN IN THE KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY

BOYD H. BODE, PROFESSOR OF PRINCIPLES AND PRACTISE OF EDUCATION, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

JUST what does this topic mean? To vitalize means to give increased life, I suppose, but this does not take us very far. We use the word "vitalize" in the sense of giving new interest and incentive, but we also use it to mean new and deeper significance. Very often the two meanings coincide. With a new significance we ordinarily get a new interest. But the two do not necessarily go together. Interest is no guarantee of worthwhileness. We may arouse interest by means of things that are extraneous or trivial. When this happens, we vitalize activity in the sense of stimulating interest, but we do not vitalize it in the sense of giving a deeper signficance to it.

This distinction seems to me of sufficient importance to warrant further discourse. Taken by and large, progressive education has, I think, been strikingly successful in organizing the work of the school so as to make it appeal to children. A person visiting these schools is at once struck with the way in which the pupils go about their business. They are intent on what they are doing; their activity is selfinitiated and selfdirected. They are too much engrossed in their work to take much notice of visitors. The layman may be pardoned if he concludes that the question of vitalizing the work in this sense is hardly a burning problem. Instead of sensing a problem, he is more likely to be filled with admiration for the skill with which the appeal to interest is achieved.

At any rate, I have not the remotest intention of discussing this aspect of the topic. I realize that I am in the presense of experts who are more ingenious and resourceful in the art of touching off the springs of interest in children than I can ever hope to become. My concern is rather with the question of how teaching may be vitalized in the sense of being conducted in accordance with an inclusive educational program, a program that will make the work on the earliest levels genuinely continuous with the upper grades, with the high school, and with the college.

In the past our effort in elementary education has been largely to escape from the mechanical procedures of conventional practise. The enrichment of the elementary curriculum was to a considerable extent incidental thereto. This emphasis was natural and proper. It was necessary to recreate the atmosphere of the school if effective education was to be carried on. The outstanding need was to rescue defenseless childhood from dull and meaningless routine. In this direction notable results have been achieved. The school has become a very different place from what it was a generation or two ago, and in our more progressive schools the change amounts to a complete transformation. The schoolmasters of olden times would either not recognize it as education at all, or they would be compelled to revise their belief in the total depravity of childhood.

Along with this achievement, however, we are gradually becoming aware of a certain weakness or shortcoming. The saying that education is not preparation for life but a form of present living has the "catchiness" of a slogan. Like most slogans it lends itself to abuse. The emphasis on the idea that education is a mode of present living was sorely needed, but the insidious suggestion that the future may be left to take care of itself is hazardous. Our outstanding problem in progressive education at the present time is the problem of direction. Speaking by and large we may say that we have made notable advances in vitalizing education, in the sense of making education a form of present living, but that we are still confronted with the problem of vitalizing education, in the sense of making education the embodiment of a reasonably definite conception of what constitutes a good life.

It was suggested a moment ago that we have neglected this problem because of our preoccupation with the task of breaking away from the artificialties of traditional education. The literature on the subject frequently suggests also that we are not yet wholly free from Rousseau's notion concerning the natural goodness of man. It is likely too that we have been unduly influenced by the psychological doctrine of instincts. All of these tendencies strengthen the disposition to look for a pattern of development within the pupil, to take for granted that the matter of direction will take care of itself. At any rate, we have found it much too easy to identify activity with education. If the pupils were engaged wholeheartedly in activity of some kind, then we were predisposed to believe that the ends of education were being promoted.

Our present emphasis on personal initiative, on resourcefulness, on creative activity, springs from the perception that the business of education is with the development of the individual, with the cultivation of capacity. It is strongly reinforced by the realization that the social order is a changing thing; or in Dr. Kilpatrick's phrase, that we must educate for a changing civilization. If we use the term intelligence to designate the ability to exploit the materials of our environment, to use things for our own ends, and to create new purposes, then the aim of education becomes the liberation of intelligence. This is, I think, the motif of presentday progressive education. Insofar as it has come short of realizing its purpose, the failure may be traced to a lack of sensitiveness to the conditions that must be met if the liberation of intelligence is to become an accomplished fact.

Here then we have the whole problem of guidance or direction in education. How may intelligence be liberated? As a first step, it is necessary to create situations that will stimulate pupils to activity, that will give them opportunity to exercise such ingenuity or resourcefulness as they may have in the adaptation of means to ends. This is a primary condition. If we do not look beyond this first condition, however, then we leave the door open to all kinds of extravagancies and sentimentalities. Children are permitted to go in pursuit of every passing whim, and restriction of any kind on the part of the teacher becomes an impious interference with the will of Providence. How an education program is to be secured on this basis is past finding out. The conditions for the liberation of intelligence are determined by the environment to quite the same degree as they are determined by the nature of the learner.

What are these environmental conditions, if they may be so called, that must be taken into account? In order to find an answer to this question, we must direct our attention at some time or other to the upper end of the educational scale, to the outcomes that we wish to secure by the time the pupil graduates from high school or from college. In order to secure real continuity of program, the work of the earlier grades must be conducted with reference to such final outcomes. Our point of departure, as intimated a moment ago, is in situations that stimulate young children to selfexpression, in the form of artistic endeavor or through undertakings of a more practical kind. Through such activities the pupils acquire a certain preliminary acquaintance with their capacities and interests and they secure an opportunity for the exercise of intelligence in the adaptation of means to ends. It is on this level, I think, that our progressive schools have been most brillianty successful. They have demonstrated that it is possible to evoke from children the same whole-heartedness and concentration as that which they exhibit in spontaneous play. For this achievement I have nothing but admiration. It would be presumptuous for an outsider to attempt to give instructions for the improvement of these methods. The point at which the outsider may legitimately enter into the picture is when the question is raised as to how the activities thus initiated may be developed in the proper direction. In slang phrase, where do we go from here?

This question is in order because we have a right to demand increasing effectiveness in the use of intelligence as the process of education is extended. To some degree, indeed, increase in effectiveness is normal and presumably inevitable. The pupil grows older, and this fact alone, other things being equal, makes for greater intellectual power. Besides, the work of the schoolroom, whether wisely chosen or not, tends to afford some opportunity for the exercise of intelligence, whether such opportunity be regarded as a major value or not. Pupils do tend to become more intelligent, even in the most conventional and unimaginative type of school. But the good is the enemy of the best, even if we leave out of consideration the actual damage that may be done by inferior forms of education. Our problem—the problem of how we may vitalize education on any level—is the problem of how we may secure maximum effectiveness for the use of intelligence in the life of the pupil.

Perhaps I am giving the impression of engaging in an unnecessary amount of preliminaries, like a timid person who wants to swim but is afraid of the water. Let us plunge in now and have it over with. One condition for increased effectiveness in the use of intelligence is the accumulation of experience in such form as to give it maximum serviceableness in dealing with new situations. In order to secure such maximum serviceableness, it is necessary to emphasize a distinctive procedure. This procedure has attained a certain standardization and is known to us as science. There is all the difference in the world between the organization of experience that is achieved by the practical man and the organization that is achieved by science, and this difference, in the end, makes science more practical than the practical life, left to itself, can ever hope to be.

Let me try to illustrate. Farmers have long known that clover restores the fertility of the soil. Science analyzes this fact, for the purpose of discovering what particular ingredients are contributed by clover, and on the basis of this discovery it becomes possible to depart from the traditional routine of farming by supplying these ingredients from other sources. Dwellers on the seacoast were long acquainted with the fact that seaweed has medicinal properties; science proved that these properties were due to the presence of iodine. Any person who goes in for drawing knows that children are not merely undersized men and women; exact measurements show that the pattern of the adult organism is specifically different from that of the child. It is reasonably obvious that the procedure of science gives new scope to activity, opens up new possibilities of achievement. As Dewey says, "Abstraction deliberately selects from the subjectmatter of former experiences that which is thought helpful in dealing with the new. It signifies conscious transfer of a meaning embedded in past experience for use in a new one. It is the very artery of intelligence, of the intentional rendering of one experience available for guidance of another."[1]

We may conclude, then, that scientific organization of subjectmatter is indispensable, if intelligence is to have proper scope in the affairs of life. This proposition is particularly in need of emphasis because of the prevailing tendency to ignore its importance. In the reaction against formalized procedure, the teaching of scientifically organized subjectmatter has been included in the general condemnation. Much of our science teaching has undoubtedly been of a mechanical and verbal character. We have taught the results of scientific investigation, with little relation to scientific method or to the bearing of science on everyday life. The time was when the teaching of science was expected to cure all our major educational ills, but this expectation has ended in disillusionment. At present we are in grave danger of underestimating the significance of scientific organization. In order to make present experiences as meaningful as possible for dealing with new situations, it is necessary at times to go in quest of underlying principles, to abandon the practical attitude for a time and pursue knowledge for its own sake, to cultivate the scientific practise of utilizing generalizations for purposes of explanation and prediction, which is what we call scientific thinking. Unless we do this we may indeed promote a certain cleverness or intellectual nimbleness, but we do not escape from routine habits of thinking and acting, nor do we achieve the sense for evidence which is the mark of the disciplined mind.

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[1] Dewey, John. *Democracy and Education*. Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y. p. 264.

In the interests of pedagogic simplicity it would be fortunate if scientific organization of subjectmatter were the only requirement for providing an escape from routine and empirical habits of thinking. But life is more complex than that. There are habits of thinking and judging which enslave intelligence and from which scientific organization is no effective means of deliverance. These habits relate especially to judgments of values. In matters of conduct, for example, the disposition to form independent judgments soon comes into collision with the standards and loyalties of the group. We encourage the experimental attitude in our relations to the material environment, but with respect to the social environment the case is not so clear. With regard to property rights, for example, or sex relations, or matters of ordinary decency, it seems more advisable to be guided by racial experience than to rely on individual judgment.

This view is plausible and has a certain justification, but it also has its limits. If we extend it too far, the individual is submerged in the group, intelligence is hobbled, and the door to progress is closed. But what is to be done about it? If we carry over into the sphere of social relations the same spirit of individual initiative and independent judgment which we stress so much in other spheres, we invite disaster and we are left without any means of determining whether a given departure from the established order is desirable or not. Social questions cannot, as a rule, be carried into a laboratory and settled by a simple scientific test. There are two reasons why this is impracticable. In the first place, experiments in this field have to be carried out on a far larger scale, as, for example, the experiment in Communism in Russia or the experiment in the dictatorship form of government in Italy. In the second place, such experiments never prove anything in a scientific sense, no matter how elaborately they may be conducted. The purpose of the experiments just mentioned is not to show that these types of social organizations are possible—we knew that much beforehand. History shows that any kind of organization was possible in the past, and these kinds of organization are still possible if we are willing to pay the price. What we want to know is whether these innovations are desirable. Before we can answer this question we must determine what is desirable and what is not. This is a very different question from a question of fact, and is a question on which there is no agreement.

I trust that the dilemma is clear. On the one hand there is the danger of training children in the passive acceptance of social standards, which makes for a static society, in which no departure from prevailing standards is tolerated. On the other hand there is the danger of encouraging the individual to be a law unto himself, which leads toward maladjustment and ultimate shipwreck. If intelligence is to be truly liberated, there are two conditions that must be met. In the first place, the pupil must be "socialized," in the sense that he must learn to cooperate with others by subordinating his personal desires and preferences insofar as this may be necessary. In the second place, he must acquire such an understanding of social usages and standards that he may be in a position to judge whether social prescriptions derive their authority merely from custom or from solid human values. In other words, he must be enlightened on the subject of standards for conduct. At this point modern education is conspicuously lacking. We have placed much stress on the need of cooperation, on social attitude and spirit, but what we should cooperate for has been left pretty largely to the imagination. The current agitation for moral education is evidence that things are not as they should be.

Perhaps the most effective way of setting intelligence free is to show how our present standards have originated. The whole history of the race bears witness to the fact that we tend to regard the social organization and usages of the moment as ultimate and final. Under the pressure of circumstances we may modify the organization and the usages, but when this has once come about we rationalize the result and oppose further changes. Monarchs claim to rule by divine right; slavery is an institution ordained from on high, or based on ineradicable differences in human nature; woman's sphere is strictly circumscribed, if she is to retain her femininity; and the right of the noble Nordic race to retain what it has acquired by despoiling other races is guaranteed by cranial measurements and the results of the mental tests.

Beliefs of this kind are not automatically eliminated by emphasis on social values in education. It is more to the point to note how every important advance in knowledge has been reflected in a new perception of social or moral values. With the invention of the printing press we became saddled with the responsibility for universal public education; with the discovery of vaccination we became responsible for epidemics; with modern means of transportation we became responsible for the threat of starvation in every part of the globe. We create and recreate our standards with changes in conditions. The whole history of the race is a record of a continuous struggle between the past and present.

This much is obvious. What is perhaps not too obvious is that this struggle involves a challenge to the belief that moral standards are fixed and unchanging. Here we strike the deepest issue of our presentday civilization, an issue forced upon us by modern science. To see social evolution as a conflict between fixed versus relative or changing standards is to prepare the way for a more intelligent way of dealing with new problems. Moreover, the conception of changing standards brings to the front the question of a guiding principle. It is possible to trace in these conflicts the emergence of a social ideal which is not merely a vague feeling of goodwill, but a guiding principle for the continuous reconstruction of the social organization. To see the course of civilization in terms of a struggle between conflicting points of view is to acquire a new insight into the nature of moral standards and a solid basis for social progress. It provides for a unified social outlook, for a philosophy of life.

I am aware that this emphasis on aims carries with it the danger of a return to formalism and mechanical instruction. But this is a danger that must be faced, if the ends of education are to be attained. We must not surrender the fruits of the victories that have already been won. Our problem is to enhance these fruits by achieving a more definite sense of direction, by unifying the entire educative process, from the bottom to the top, on the basis of a continuous, integrating program. The problem is a problem for the teacher of kindergarten and primary as well as for the teacher in high school or college.

By recognizing the importance of individual initiative and selfexpression we get a clue to methods of teaching. By recognizing the importance of the scientific organization of subjectmatter and of social standards as devices for promoting a democratic organization of society we secure a clue to the selection of subjectmatter. Methods of teaching and the content of courses vary as we go up the scale, but the underlying principles are the same throughout. The work of the kindergarten and of the primary grades should be a foreshadowing of the outcomes that constitute a truly liberal education. It goes without saying that the educational aims presented in this paper cannot be carried very far on the earliest levels of school work. But these aims provide both direction and continuity for the educative process, which is an outstanding educational need at the present time.

HELPING CHILDREN ENRICH AND GAIN IDEAS—ABSTRACT

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Our children (the healthy, unspoiled ones) come running to school, full of eagerness and curiosity in the world about them, filled with the joy of living, ready for an adventure. They come with every avenue of approach to learning things at first hand wide open. Now modern science has been helping us to see that the learning that functions in real life comes through a social sharing and adventuring and that the sense and motor experiences resulting from this adventuring are the pathways which guided into continually widening fields lead to an interest in all the arts and sciences—to the related subjectmatter, which we call the curriculum—geography, history, all the fine and industrial arts, literature, number, and science.

The new school begins with the child's natural interest in his immediate surroundings. He is given a chance to explore and investigate his room, his building and neighborhood, and later the sources contributory to them all and to his wellbeing, farms, markets, stations, docks, grocery store, post-office and fire department.

The children come back from their investigations, pool experiences and relive and vivify them, relating them to their own lives through dramatic play with blocks and toys, paints, crayons, clay, wood, hammer, and nails, through music, reading, stories, and number. Second hand experiences or the knowledge and skills that have been found to be useful in the history of the race are increasingly used as the tools to help in the accomplishment of the individual and the group experiences and to enrich these. The pupil's mind is on the doing, of which learning is the natural consequence. It is the teacher's job so to cooperate and guide in the carrying on of the projects or centers of interest that there is a gradual growth of mastery of the skills and an orderly development of subjectmatter, which enrich the life of the child and lead him toward the knowledge, skills, and attitude that will help him in further living.

VITAL VALUES IN CREATIVE EXPRESSION

MARGARET E. MATHIAS, NEW JERSEY STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE,
UPPER MONTCLAIR, N. J.

The general acceptance of materials for the use of young children gives rise to the question of what worthwhile growth may result from the use of materials.

One of the most obvious values of the use of materials is the provision for wholesome physical activity. Materials are selected which will provide for large quick work. If the child is allowed to use the proper material on his own level the activity and satisfaction which he derives from it promotes wholesome physical development.

The use of materials provides for mental development. The problems are tangible. The solutions can be tested. Knowledges and skills which are acquired are sources of satisfaction because they help the child to more adequate expression.

The use of materials provides for the development of desirable social habits. Children learn to take turns when there is not enough equipment for everyone. They learn to respect and protect the work of other children as well as their own. They learn to work together or to work alone contentedly if it is necessary.

The benefits to be derived from the use of materials in physical, mental, and social growth are being widely recognized.

Not so universally recognized is the value of the satisfaction which the individual himself finds in his own work. In measuring values we are likely to think only of the benefits which the group receives from the contributions of the individual. Thus we find the picture worthwhile because it is enjoyed by other members of the group. A "vital value" which we are inclined to overlook is the satisfaction which the child himself gains from his own painting.

Drawing and painting may be thought of in two ways: First, it may be communication in which the primary aim is to make clear an idea or feeling to another person. Second, it may be selfexpression when the feeling is expressed only for emotional release without regard as to whether or not it is understood by other people. Other people *may* understand it but that is not its first purpose for being.

This popular misconception of creative work is obvious in the criticism of children's art work. In general practise we have progressed to the point of allowing the child to express himself, but we examine his paintings with the idea of socalled improvement. The house is too small or the flowers are too large or the trees are the wrong color. It is true that these are mistakes in draftsmanship and that when the child arrives at the point of needing accurate drawing for lucid communication he may wish to make his drawings more nearly in accordance with appearance. However, appearance is only an outward form and of much higher artistic value is the quality of feeling which is present in the paintings of young children to a high degree. This the adult is apt to miss entirely.

Thus a child unconsciously reveals his interests by the relative size of the things he paints. The people are larger than the house, the flowers largest of all in accordance with the places of various importance which people, trees, and flowers occupy in the child's mind.

Again the child does not limit his expression by painting in one picture only what he can see from one point of view. He paints the sum total of an experience. The automobile in the street, the baby in his crib, and the family eating dinner are one experience to him and he shows all of them in one picture.

Children paint with remarkable brevity and directness. A few brush strokes tell the story. This is a quality which we can appreciate when we learn to approach a painting as something which has been done in response to a feeling about an experience and not as the result of opening the shutter of a camera and recording everything that falls within range of the lens.

Neither is a child limited in his use of color. He paints with his "favorite" color or the "way he likes it" rather than according to the actual colors of the things he paints. This also gives additional significance to his expression.

If one will approach a child's painting "receptively" he begins to recognize the remarkable closeness of feeling and expression which a child is able to attain when he is allowed to work unhampered.

In addition to the expression of feeling which is evident in the paintings of young children, there is remarkable composition. While emphasis is usually gained by making the object of greater size, yet there is no doubt as to what is important. Balance is keenly felt even though nothing has been said about balance. The simple directness in painting often carries remarkable rhythm in line and mass.

Recognition of these qualities of remarkable feeling and unusual composition will stimulate genuine respect for children's work.

The major value then is the satisfaction which it affords the child himself. Technic is necessary only as it leads to freer expression. Since the child is contented with his work the adult can help most by enjoying his work with him, respecting his sincerity, and sustaining his confidence in himself, and hoping to attain ability to appreciate his work.

WHAT TECHNICS IN TEACHING SUGGEST VITAL VALUES IN HELPING CHILDREN GAIN AND IMPROVE SKILLS IN READING, WRITING, AND ARITHMETIC?

PEARL G. MONKS, PRINCIPAL, WADE PARK SCHOOL, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Reading

Successful "teaching technics" are developed through careful diagnosis of the child learning situations which point to the needed help and instruction with emphasis on the needed help.

How can we help the child to gain and improve skills in reading? The child should be ready for reading before we attempt to stress it with him. To be ready for reading the child must usually be six years old mentally. He must be physically fit. The sickly, undernourished child cannot do his best work. He must be emotionally stable. The over fostered child lacking in selfcontrol must acquire habits of selfreliance, initiative, cooperation, and judgment before he is able to make the adjustments and effort needed to learn to read. He must understand and speak some English before he can do much with reading. He must be observant and discriminating; notice and talk about objects of interest in his environment. He should have ability to see and hear similarities and dissimilarities in sound and form. He must be able to understand and carry out simple directions. He must be able to tell a simple idea, experience, or story clearly. He must be reading conscious and show a curiosity in a reading environment of signs, labels, and books.

If the child does not show reading readiness he should be helped until he is ready for it. This may take the form of conferences with parents as to the child's health. Most parents are more than willing to help when it is pointed out to them that a certain physical defect or health habit is hindering the child's development to the extent that his school work suffers.

Parents are surprised and often a little dubious when they are told that the fact that their child assumes no responsibility in the home, that he has been carefully guarded from contact with other children, affects his school work disastrously. The foreign-born parent many times clings to his mother tongue and either discourages his child learning the new language or at least fails to encourage it. But when their child's problem is presented to them tactfully and sympathetically, most of these parents are willing to cooperate.

In the classrooms we can help the child to this reading readiness by providing: (1) Equipment and activities that will promote physical development, (2) periods full of physical and mental activity, (3) periods of relaxation, (4) milk for the undernourished child, (5) opportunities for the child to assume responsibilities, in care of room, for example, (6) opportunities for the child to work and play with children, (7) opportunities for the development of his selfrespect through frequently tasting success, (8) opportunities for a development of a keen interest in his own improvement.

If the child does not understand English he may be helped by securing the cooperation of English speaking children both in and out of school, and by having many experiences of association of word with activities and objects in natural situations. In extreme cases especially with older foreign children phonics may be used to facilitate proper pronunciation and enunciation particularly in affecting the proper use of the vocal organs.

In order to read the child must have powers of observation and discrimination. These can be developed through wholehearted interests. Excursions, individual and group activities, and the free work period help greatly in developing the needed powers of observation and discrimination. Every kindergarten-primary child should have one free work period each session where he is given opportunity to choose activities and materials.

Powers of observation and discrimination are also developed through frequent changes in room environment in the matter of bulletin board, flowers, pictures, etc. Ear training through music and verse is an excellent preparation for later phonic work. Consideration of size and forms is likewise helpful. Much emphasis must be placed on reading readiness because little can be accomplished without it.

The child learning to read needs many and varied reading experiences so that he will feel the need for and appreciate the value and uses of reading. These may include simple experience charts, signs, labels, dramatization programs with cast and scenes, simple booklets, bulletin boards, plans for day's work, plans for construction work, questions to be answered in an excursion, record of observation, and many simple attractive books.

Efficient reading habits must be developed from the beginning. An interest in books and a respect and proper care for books should be developed from the start.

The child is more intelligently working at reading when he is helped to know what he has accomplished and what his next goal is to be. So tests and checks help the child realize his success and spur him on to his next step.

In every large group we have children who read exceedingly well with very little teaching, children who will learn to read well with adequate teaching, and another group who do not read well even with special help and attention. In this last group of poor readers we may have.

1. The mentally slow child
2. The normally but obviously immature child
3. The child with poor school attendance due to illness, etc.
4. The foreign child who hears very little English at home
5. The average foreign child new to the country
6. The average foreign child with inadequate schooling
7. A few cases where we are much in doubt as to the difficulty.

An intensive study of a group of 9 such children this year showed these 9 non-readers to be all boys with a grade range 2B to 5A, age range 8 to 11, I. Q. range 92 to 130. These children had their beginning reading in five different schools. The wide variation in teaching methods used seems to point to the fact that these disabilities are not the fruit of any one type of reading teaching but seem to belong to most group reading teaching.

All nine children were American born and had English speaking parents. Eight of the nine attended kindergarten; in all nine cases the children were most eager to go to school but in eight of the nine the parents hated to give them up; in eight cases the children are socially and emotionally immature; in all nine cases there was a great deal of overfostering, some of this being due to the early ill health of the child; seven were definitely kept from other children; five associate only with adults; two play only with younger children; six participate largely in indoor activities; none of the boys are of the boisterous type—all are well dressed and neat almost to the point of being fastidious.

In all cases there was family pressure on the child because of his difficulty and in all cases the child was sensitive about it. The children all showed an interest along mechanical lines, five were interested in music, seven in drawing. They did fairly well in these subjects but were not outstanding so these interests may be compensatory. Only one had a good sense of rhythm and only two any sense of tone or pitch. Seven had normal vision though in every case there was a family history of eye difficulties. Hearing was normal in six cases.

During childhood four suffered a great deal of ill health: Eight were described by parents and teachers as of a nervous type, four bit their nails, one had nervous trouble, two suffered enuresis, one was very easily nauseated, five were finicky about food, four show fatigue posture, four had diseased tonsils, one had convulsions in childhood, one suffered loss of consciousness from a fall when a baby, one had goiter symptom, and six were underweight.

All 9 children were given Binets and reading, spelling, and arithmetic tests. Six tested normal, one superior, two slow normal. All showed poor habits of associations both in the Binet and reading tests.

This probably indicates that the use of the large units in the teaching of beginning reading at the present time may be so confusing to some children that they are prevented from making the necessary association of the thought and the visual (form), auditory (sound), and kinaesthetic (feel of word both in speech and tracing).

Even in cases where the smaller units have been used it seems that there may not have been sufficient repetition to establish these connections. In our association of thought with form we may have been considering largely the visually minded child. We may have neglected from the kindergarten on to give opportunity for the establishment of the auditory and kinaesthetic connections which are most important for the children who are visually minded.

The intensive study of this group has led us to have a reading questionnaire filled out for all kindergarten and first-grade children. The reading questionnaire gives us the following facts about each child.

Through this we hope to recognize these difficulties early and do preventive work which will save the child unnecessary failure and discouragement, keep the parent's confidence and goodwill—and save the school the expense of failure.

READING QUESTIONNAIRE

Name ______________________	**Teacher** ______________________
Age ______________	**M. A.** ______________
Grade ______________	**I. Q.** ______________

____

Health ____

Initiative ____

Maturity ____

Social Adjustment ____

Outside Interests ____

Special Ability ____

Special Weakness ____

Child's Behavior First Week of School ______________________________

What Has Child Accomplished in Reading? Spelling? (if he has had it)

____

What Evidence of Reading Readiness Does Child Show? (Kdg.) __________

____

Home Conditions ____

____

Writing

It may be of interest to note at the beginning of a discussion of writing that in the past three years in our building we have had no formal drill period. This does not mean that we have not had any drill in writing.

When children first enter school many bring with them a desire to learn to write, an interest in the skill itself. Going to school has meant traditionally learning to read and write. This skill interest if kept at that level does not persist long. In a 2B class free work period, the last month of school only one child in a group of forty suggested writing to improve his writing while ten were doing some form of writing such as a story, captions for original pictures, etc. These 10 had the desire to do their work over, to improve their writing so that the captions and stories would look better. This has been the motive back of any drill in writing throughout the school.

The individual difficulties are pointed out to the child and he works to improve. Some time ago through a questionnaire we listed some of the writing opportunities presented through natural situations. When compiled there were three typewritten pages of them. I will not take space to list them but they start in the kindergarten with making signs for a store and the desire of some children to sign their pictures; in the first grade, writing of invitations to plays and parties, the cast and scenes of a play, and library rules. As we go on through the grades there are enriched writing opportunities—short stories, plays, poems, programs, etc. The only limit is the child's ability.

The fact that our writing is not limited to fifteen minutes a day, that individual difficulties are noted and corrected in class discussions, and that the desire to improve is so vital to their satisfaction in their work results in high standards set by the children themselves. These standards are commensurate with the motor control at their level.

In this work we have had the excellent cooperation of the writing supervisor. In the three years, the supervisor has been interested and has always held herself ready to be of service. She has been openminded and not hasty in judgment as to the result of this procedure.

This spring a note was sent out from the principal's office asking if any of the teachers would like suggestions or help. Seventeen responded citing the help needed in their classes. The supervisor visited each class knowing the problems. The teachers were most enthusiastic about the help given.

Arithmetic

History tells us that arithmetic was originally taught primarily because of its practical value. Later with the trend for mind training and mental discipline it was emphasized as excellent mental discipline for the child. Now we have swung back to its original purpose and are emphasizing its practical and social values in natural situations.

The activities and interests of the kindergarten-primary children call for much in the way of number ideas. A survey made this spring in the kindergarten-primary grades astonished many of us by the amount and variety of number experiences the children were meeting in their work. They were getting meanings through rhythm games, the series meaning, choosing a certain number of a group as the third child; collection meanings—a certain number of children or a certain amount of material for a group; ratio meanings as two being half of four; the idea of number as a combination of other numbers as five boys and three girls; simple addition, subtraction, and division in natural situations—keeping scores, making change, dividing materials, etc. This survey showed a wide number vocabulary and a decided number consciousness in the kindergarten-primary field. While we have no formal arithmetic below the second grade it is just as vital that the number habits, attitudes, and skills of this early kindergarten-primary period be appreciated by the teacher as it is later when more formal work begins.

The number consciousness, the meanings built up through many experiences are the basis for the understanding of much of his work later. At this early stage the child is also developing number attitudes intelligent or otherwise depending upon the teachers appreciation of number possibilities at that stage.

I have not dwelt on the materials which can be used most successfully in the fields of reading, writing, and arithmetic but have tried to consider learning situations. These learning situations which are an outgrowth of the children's own experiences and activities point to the field of social studies for a large part of their subjectmatter.

HOW VITAL VALUES ARE GAINED THROUGH THE EDUCATIONAL INSIGHT OF THE SCHOOL ARCHITECT

MYRA C. HACKER, EDUCATIONAL ARCHITECT, FORT LEE, N. J.

I am aware of the opportunity afforded me here of interpreting to you the study and foresight with which the school architect prepares his plans to cooperate with the requirements of the educator in developing and stressing the vital values of primary education. It is essential that the former have an understanding of the general trend and scope of the curriculum in the nursery, kindergarten, and primary years, and a feeling and appreciation for the aims and tendencies of modern pedagogy in order that he may place at the disposal of the teacher an environment which will provide for the fullest consummation of the educational and esthetic ideals of both educator and architect.

Such a plan necessitates a liberal amount of space, that all phases of child life and activity may enjoy their proper importance. There is room for the pupil to realize in one of many small groups his own natural aptitudes and the part that he plays among his fellows. We must allow for the activity of mind and body that prompts the child to explore, to question and to construct. Stimuli are provided to promote an appreciation of art and literature, as well as of science and nature, which may be dormant. The pursuits in which a child may indulge in a well designed and proportioned room form the basis for advancement in the enrichment and acquisition of ideas in the most impressionable years of life with the subtle elimination of minor defects.

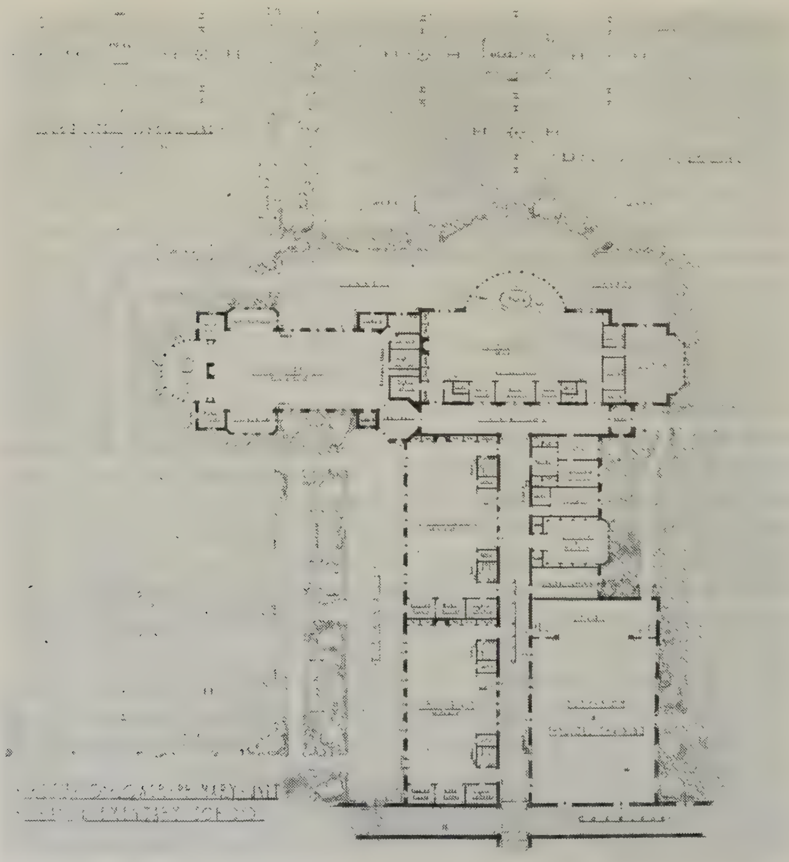
The acquisition of knowledge is not neglected, but rather subordinated to the acquiring of the feeling of citizenship, the development of one's self in one's group and the development of the group according to the needs of the individuals composing it. The school architect features this community idea in providing for the physical, emotional, rhythmic, and mental needs of the children, singly and collectively. A glance at our ideal plan will enable us to understand the intricacy of detail, the deepness of forethought, the broad understanding with which the architect offers myriad opportunities of learning social, esthetic, and practical values of life.

The sketch is of a lower primary unit to be built in connection with a public school, or as a separate unit.

The unit would consist of a nursery and its rest room, a kindergarten, two first-grade rooms and several accessory rooms, consisting of a library and museum, a large kitchen, a suite of offices for nurse, dentist, doctor, and psychologist, a lobby and waiting room useful for the nurse in the morning medical inspection, a room for general supplies, and a combination play and physical training room.

The nursery, kindergarten, and first-grade rooms are provided with various alcoves. The nursery and kindergarten have their doll alcove, while the work alcove, the reading nook, the coat alcove, the supply and storage alcove are common to all.

The three age levels are supplied with separate toilet facilities, in each



instance so situated as to offer the greatest possible accessibility to the child. This has been particularly stressed in connection with the nursery. The bathroom is located between the rest room and the play room within easy reach of the outdoor playground.

The nursery and kindergarten have some special facilities. They have a balcony extending over the accessory rooms useful for eating, rest, educational play, and observation. We also find here deep bay windows with seats around them and a sunken pool.

Each of the four rooms is provided with a fireplace. They all have entrance and exit facilities direct to the outside leading on to the terrace, which mean easy entrance and a great aid in minimizing fire and panic hazards. This terrace enables the youngsters to be out-of-doors in damp weather without coming in contact with wet ground.

From the terrace each group has access to separate playground and play apparatus. In each room we may find the new type of locker, which may serve many purposes: first, for the child's own possession; second, it is of sufficient width to be used for rest purposes; and third, the top of it may be used for plants and objects of immediate interest.

The accessory rooms are convenient to the entire unit and all rooms are readily accessible to the corridor.

The combination play and physical training room is so arranged as to be convenient both to this unit and to other sections of the school.

This entire unit provides ideal facilities for 100 to 150 pupils.

The most recent views in educational circles consider sixty square feet of floor space per child a desirable minimum standard. This space has made provision for all activities of the child from rest, play, and eating to the pursuit of the three R's. Sufficient space accessible to the child is a great aid in relieving nervous strain, and such removal is considered essential to a well balanced life by modern child educators. The orientation of the rooms is such as to flood the nursery, kindergarten, and grade rooms with sunlight at all times that they are in use. The extensive use of quartz glass permits the elusive vitamin "D" to enter the rooms.

In order that sound health habits may be formed, certain factors must be considered. Space is available for adequate resting and sleeping at needed periods during the day. The nursery in particular has its own special rest room. There is provision for eating so that the casual enjoyment of the meal not only brings physical stimulation but creates a feeling of repose.

The balconies in the rooms form an attractive place for the children's luncheon, for rest, and for general sociability. Drinking fountains, placed at the right height, not only allow refreshment, but encourage the drinking of the necessary amount of water daily. Convenient toilet facilities, of the proper size, likewise allow the teaching of regular habits and prevent carelessness and neglect of the necessary functions. Each level of nursery, kindergarten, and first grade is provided with these physiological necessities.

From observation of the plan it is apparent that adequate floor space has been provided for large group activities and that there are small enclosures where individual and group activities may take place. This takes into account a child's social instinct. Dividing into small numbers allows not only diversity of interest, but opportunity for each child to engage actively in some endeavor where he learns his place and relative importance in the group but where he is allowed, without repression, to follow his natural bend. The presence of others and their participation in games and educational play teaches the fundamentals of good citizenship, such as rights of others, fair dealings, etc., and the enjoyment together of activities, such as luncheon and recreation, which fixes firm values of life in their minds and enables them to meet the problems that confront them. The above mentioned alcoves may have various educational uses; we use here the doll, the work, the reading, the storage, and coat alcoves.

The all important doll alcove is where the family unit builds itself up in miniature. This association with inanimate families allows conversational expression which results amazingly in expanding vocabularies and expressions to groups of other children. This gives, in addition, a great insight into the personality and home life of the child. The teacher can easily see the carry-over from the home into the doll play. "Putting Dollie to Sleep" is apt to be a fairly good reproduction of how daughter or sonny go to bed.

A quiet attractive reading nook invites the child to look at the pictures, listen to the stories, and eventually read for himself. Others can easily come in and join the activity. Then, too, necessary quiet is provided which is a great aid to concentration. In the first grade actual reading lessons of the small group will take place here. The most recent method in reading divides into small groups which have approximately the same mental age, achievement, score, and interest. It has been found that children progress faster in reading under these conditions. The committee work of the children on some particular project is an important use of this alcove. If they are going to give a reading party, they can rehearse here the work that is to take place.

For those who like to see things materialize under their manipulation, there is the work alcove. Plentiful space allows the work to remain undisturbed over night, so that the pupil gets the satisfying reaction of building and building without disturbance. It is the sympathetic architect who provides the room in which one activity does not need to be scrapped to give way to another.

He allows space so that adequate supplies may always be kept on hand in the various storerooms. Where these storerooms are provided the classrooms have a tidier appearance; at the same time the material is accessible and in good condition. This enables the teacher to get material in larger quantities and have it on hand when the need arises for it. The children's access to this room gives them familiarity with a great many different materials and is an aid to the enrichment of their ideas. The house-wife and the office man both know the necessity for sufficient supply room and the inconvenience and inefficiency which result from the lack of it.

In the coat alcove, the care with which each child's belongings are kept entirely distinct and orderly instils habits of neatness and precision in addition to its great contribution to health. With the separate facilities there has been a noticeable decrease in disease and an increased security to the child. Individual lockers also give the child a respect for others' property as well as his own.

An allotment of ample space, both inside and out, allows for the natural expression of rhythmic tendencies. An examination of the plan will reveal that adequate floor space provides for a large group activity in rhythms and that the play yards provide, with their accompanying terraces, a place both for large apparatus and its housing, and for outdoor games. Noted on the plan are provisions in each age level, for merry-go-rounds, jumble-gyms, slides, and sand boxes.

The most pronounced characteristic of childhood is a ceaseless activity of mind and body. If we take all personality as an orchestration of rhythm, we see that the original nature of the child demands freedom with rich opportunity for varied activities. In giving play space for toys and educational apparatus, we make the schoolroom fit for living organism by supplying the obvious needs in the way of stimulus for a full active life. A richer and more stimulating equipment makes possible genuine play and wholehearted work of a varied character.

Rooms well planned and designed with artistry are a great aid to children in the enrichment and acquisition of ideas. A child unconsciously views some idea of esthetic color where beauty and harmony prevail in the color scheme. If a fireplace is designed so as to be charming as to the tile, mantel, and attractive hearth, it gives the child a standard to gauge other fireplaces by. Paintings by skilled artists attract children and introduce them to literature. Through the paintings, they become acquainted with charming and whimsical "Mother Goose." A well selected frieze on the wall may depict a marvelous procession of animals, birds and human beings marching before the children. This often supplies the children a background for becoming an intelligent and appreciative reader, for they will carry to their books clear ideas and a better basis for appreciation and will have fewer obstacles in attempting to master the complex art of the printed page. A room that has pictures which appeal to children and some objects of experience, furnishes material for language usage and conversation. The more attractive materials and corners in the room, the richer will be the material for conversation. A multitude of experiences, meanings, and associations are built up in this way.

Some reader may explain: "Why a pool in a class room?" The educator will reply that the pool is a great aid to the enrichment of ideas. The child gets first-hand information concerning the different uses of water and its importance in his environment. He sees some of the simple physical laws of nature in operation. He finds out what water will sustain, and why a stone sinks while a piece of wood floats. He notices the process of evaporation and its effect on wet clothes. The opportunity for water play and observation of fish life is beginning to be quite essential in this modern classroom of ours.

As the children gather around the fireplace, so essentially a center of sociability and one of the great aids to story-telling and language development, some fundamental principles of nature and woodcraft may be instilled in listening groups.

The burning wood, the curling smoke, the steam, the remaining charcoal, the ultimate cold ashes, all give rise to a series of questions which are followed by worthwhile experiments in order to solve them. This gives the watchful teacher an opportunity to take children back into the era when coal began and huge monsters walked the earth.

In our modern school other personnel besides teachers must be considered. Not only the school doctor, dentist and nurse, but the psychiatrist and psychologist must have offices where they can perform their tasks efficiently.

Three additional facilities which are a great aid to the unit are: the auxiliary playroom with its stage, the library, and the kitchen. A wise man provides for a rainy day. It is a wise architect who provides play space for a rainy day and so a progressive school has its play room which may be used during stormy weather. This room is also used for school activities of the higher grades and by organizations in the community.

In the library we have an extra room in which books and magazines for both teachers and children are kept in close proximity to the class and which relieves the need of having books that are not in immediate use cluttering the room. This room is also available for museum purposes. Science is becoming such an important subject in the modern school that the school architect is obliged to provide space for the specimen and other scientific material.

The kitchen which functions doubly as a means of preparing food and as a means of allowing an outlet for the children's untold energy, is a remarkable center of stimulation. It is important for children to see what food in preparation is like and to participate in its composition. The ready comrade of service is engendered as the little children make apple-sauce, corn-bread, butter and milk products for themselves. The dignity of labor is emphasized in the washing and putting away of dishes. How valuable is the exactness which they acquire in measuring and computing. The arithmetic becomes, in the future, not a series of meaningless sums, but a means toward the accomplishment of a pleasant task. What an impression is created by a vivid example of the natural, physical, and chemical laws in operation.

The kitchen is also a great help in socializing. Little parties can be given here. They often complete an experience here which started with a raw product. Now they can see it put to its final use and completion. Children in a delicatessen world need this familiarity with raw and finished products.

It is quite apparent that the practical application of our modern theories depends upon the architect's comprehension of the needs of the curriculum and upon his ability to plan for the richest possible experience of the young child.

VITAL VALUES IN KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY EDUCATION AS VIEWED IN THE KALAMAZOO SYSTEM AND STEPS TOWARD THEIR ACCOMPLISHMENT—ABSTRACT

E. H. DRAKE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, KALAMAZOO, MICH.

Vital values in kindergarten-primary education may be stated as follows:

1. The proper bodily development of the child, including the development of his nervous system
2. The proper mental and emotional development of the child, including mental and emotional health
3. The development of definite purposes through the use of childlike materials
4. Learning achieved by doing
5. Development of the power to use knowledge attained
6. The attainment of a liberal degree of true freedom through the removal of unnatural restraints and by the proper degree of selfrestraint, selfcontrol, and selfdirection
7. The development of the creative powers of the child
8. The development of group consciousness and social-mindedness
9. The development in children of the spirit of inquiry, methods of research, and the control of the tools of learning
10. The development of character by means of the above and other life building processes of the school.

The general plan of procedure by which Kalamazoo attempts to accomplish these values is shown in these statements:

1. The use of the activities curriculum and plan of work
2. The architectural construction of buildings, including shops for each early elementary room, supply of cupboards for material, floors built of linoleum or other appropriate material, wall equipment, light, heat, ventilation, etc.
3. The equipment of rooms with light, movable tables and chairs, ample supply of books, construction materials, shops equipped with bench, tools, etc.
4. Ample material for the working out of purposeful activities originated in the minds and lives of the children such as store, automobile, airship, train, circus and movie experiences.
5. Freedom of children accomplished through their own restraint and selfcontrol to communicate and work with their fellows, to move about in the room, to accomplish their conceived activities, etc.
6. The supplying of abundant opportunity for selfexpression and creative activity.
7. Considering the child as the true center of education and child growth as the main objective, with the teacher acting as leader and guide in the activity curriculum and not as a taskmaster or authoritarian instructor.
8. The selection of superior teachers with inspiring personality, true sympathy for and adaptability to the type of work being carried on and with ample special training for it.
9. The holding of preschool clinics for all prospective kindergarten children. We look forward with hope to the establishment of a regular child clinic for the study of mental and emotional natures of children.
10. The education of parents by mothers' meetings, demonstrations of the work, observations in the nursery school, etc.

Department of Lip Reading

THE DEPARTMENT OF LIP READING was established at the Philadelphia meeting of the National Education Association, in July, 1926, following the required successive meetings of the group, and after a petition had been presented to the Association.

The officers for the year 1930-31 are *President*, Marion Spring Clark, Cambridge, Mass.; *Vicepresident*, Coralie N. Kenfield, San Francisco, Calif.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Alice I. Putnam, 3610 Milam St., Houston, Texas. Meetings are held once each year in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are to be found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1926:473-486 1927:473-486 1928:435-449 1929:-449-462

THE IMPORTANCE OF EARLY DISCOVERY OF IMPAIRMENT OF HEARING—ABSTRACT

RUSSELL G. MEANS, INSTRUCTOR OF OPHTHALMOLOGY AND OTO-LARYNGOLOGY, COLLEGE OF MEDICINE, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY,
COLUMBUS, OHIO

HEARING tests in the Columbus schools begin with the third grade pupils and go through the ninth grade. It has been found that over 5.3 percent of these children show enough defect in hearing to handicap them in their school work.

It is difficult to arrange tests for children of a younger age, but teachers and parents should be very alert to recognize early deafness and if found, a competent specialist should be consulted. Treatment should be followed until the hearing is restored. The important part of recognizing deafness is to realize the underlying causes and attack these diseases early, or, more important still, prevent them if possible. Certain infections that constitute a menace to good hearing should be recognized. They are: frequent colds, sore throat or tonsilitis, a chronic discharging nose, or sinusitis commonly called "sniffles." The acute eruptive fevers or contagious diseases as measles, scarlet fever, occasionally chicken pox, and frequently diphtheria often seriously affect ears. Diphtheria can be eliminated by immunization with toxin anti-toxin, and I want especially to make the plea for the use of scarlet fever anti-toxin in every case of the disease, as even a light case may do great damage to the ears. Twelve percent of all deafness can be traced to scarlet fever as a cause. No child should be needlessly exposed to any of these communicable diseases.

It has been stated that fifty percent of all adults suffer with more or less deafness, and that sixty to eighty percent of this great economic handicap could have been avoided by early preventive measures, or by early recognition and subsequent treatment. Hearing cannot be normal in the presence of an obstructed or a "runny" nose. This indicates disease of the tonsils and adenoids or infection in the sinuses. If allowed to go untreated, detrimental changes in the ears are sure to follow. Prevent childhood diseases, treat all respiratory diseases seriously, never neglect an earache or a discharging ear. These are the "Stop and Look" signs that allow you to hear.

HARD OF HEARING CHILDREN SHOULD NOT BE SEGREGATED—ABSTRACT

DORA SCHULMAN, INSTRUCTOR IN HARD OF HEARING WORK, UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, SUMMER SESSION, BUFFALO, N. Y.

The chairman has asked me to speak on the subject—The Hard of Hearing Child Should Not Be Segregated. It is my purpose however to show you that it is not a question as to whether or not the hard of hearing child should be segregated but that the hard of hearing child cannot be segregated for selfevident reasons.

During each term of my fifteen years of experience as a teacher I have always found a few hard of hearing children that I could help. During the past nine years the supervisors and teachers of P. S. 20, Manhattan, have referred to me children whose hearing seemed impaired. I realized the necessity of finding the child with incipient deafness, informing his class teacher and his parents of the condition, advising his parents to seek medical aid and impressing upon them the necessity of the child mastering the art of lip reading. Thus I used P. S. 20, Manhattan, as an "Experimental Station."

So intensely interested was I in the promising possibilities of the work that I decided to apply for a sabbatical leave for the express purpose of devoting one-half year to research along these lines. This permission was granted by Dr. O'Shea, Superintendent of Schools of New York City, and this report covers the work during this term (February to June, 1929).

By the term "Deafened Child" I mean the child who, born with normal hearing, has lost some of his hearing through an accident or childhood illness after he had acquired speech. This child not only presents an educational problem but also offers an opportunity for service in health education. He needs the lip reading teacher as well as the otologist.

As a result of this study it is concluded that the continuation of hearing surveys in schools will discover children

1. *Who should be in hearing conservation classes or in schools for the deaf*—A hearing conservation class is made up of a group of about ten children with hearing so seriously impaired that even raised voice in the regular grade is difficult for them to hear. In this special class they take their grade subjects through a group amplifier. In addition they receive lip reading instruction and residual hearing training. However, play is taken with children of normal hearing and the class is in the regular grade school.

Children born deaf or those who have lost their hearing before speech has been established belong in the school for the deaf.

New York City has more than 100,000 school children with incipient deafness. At this point it is only fitting to call your attention to the fact that 100,000 or more in one large city indicates millions in the United States. That the problem is decidedly one of numbers has been corroborated by the findings of Fowler and Fletcher of New York in their Three Million Deafened Children, by Bock of Rochester, and Newhardt of Minneapolis. To segregate such numbers would necessitate the building of many special schools. It cost about $2,000,000 to build our School for the Deaf. We would need 100 such schools in New York City alone, figuring 1000 children in each school. So costly a program is not practical.

2. *Who are difficult speech correction problems because of an undiscovered impairment in hearing.*—The hard of hearing child hears the difficult articulation and the distorted and artificial speech of the deaf children of his class instead of pure true speech when educated with them. This type of segregation means the penalty of acquiring a second handicap.

3. *Who are costly retardation subjects.*—From the educator's point of view the hard of hearing child cannot be segregated. He is retarded in his

studies in the school for the deaf. According to the Course of Study the School for the Deaf is allowed six years to cover the work mastered in the first three years in our regular schools. It is even more costly to educate the hard of hearing child in the School for the Deaf because these schools are allowed eleven years to do eight years work.

Again, it costs approximately $400 to educate a child in a large city day school for the deaf, while it costs $94 to teach this child in the regular school and possibly $6.53 more for lip reading instruction. Segregation means greater retardation.

4. *Who are disciplinary or truancy cases because of their inability to adjust themselves as part of the class.*

5. *Who are facing a bleak future because of lack of educational preparedness for a progressive handicap.*—Periodic surveys will lead to development of methods to discover the hard of hearing children below the third year, who are becoming behavior problems and showing warped reactions to life. The simplest, cheapest, soundest, and most humane procedure is

1. Periodic surveys to find the child.
2. Otological clinics to prevent either deafness or progression.
3. Lip reading instruction a few periods a week for the hard of hearing child.

From the vocational counsellor's point of view we must train the hard of hearing together with those whose hearing is normal for with them he must work in adult life. The human waste that accompanies vocational rehabilitation will be avoided.

From the psychologist's point of view segregation of the hard of hearing child is a spiritual crime. At no time must an individual be conscious or believe that his handicap is the whole of him. An environment that develops poise, control, belonging instinct, and assimilation is every child's right.

From the sociologist's point of view segregation is antiquated procedure. Wherever feasible, orphans are supported in their own homes or boarded in homes with families of good standing so as to give them family environment. Thus we see that segregation of the hard of hearing child is a loss to the individual, community, city and state.

The hard of hearing child must and can be kept where he belongs, with hearing children.

THE VALUE OF SCIENTIFIC HEARING TESTS—ABSTRACT

K. P. ROYCE,[1] RESEARCH PRODUCTS DEPARTMENT, GRAYBAR ELECTRIC
COMPANY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

A scientific test means a test conducted by methods and apparatus of established accuracy and of sufficient delicacy to detect incipient as well as gross defects. The test must be scientifically conducted under favorable conditions.

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[1] Mr. Royce was unable to be present. His paper was read by Mr. Dunning of the Columbus Graybar Electric Company.

If such a test is made in a noisy room or under other unfavorable conditions it is worse in some respects than a test that is frankly an approximation. Conclusions drawn from improperly conducted audiometer tests will show such discrepancies as to cast a shadow of uncertainty on the whole program of deafness prevention.

The most obvious value and perhaps the greatest value of scientific tests is to the deafened school child whose handicap is discovered instead of ignored. No one knows how many school children have been retarded and accused of being dull, when the dullness was in their ears, not in their brains.

Ear specialists are pretty well agreed that as many as eighty percent of the cases of incipient deafness in children can be cured or arrested if treatment is instituted promptly and carried out faithfully.

Statistics indicate that there is three times as much repetition of grades among slightly deafened children as among those who have normal hearing. Each repetition of a grade is an expense to the tax-payers; if we discover these children whose failure to hear perfectly is keeping them back we can eliminate much of the expense due to retardation. It is conservatively estimated that if one-half of the repetitions due to deafness can be eliminated the savings will run from $500 to $1500 per thousand children per year.

The great majority of deafened adults are either definitely handicapped and unhappy in their social life, or have won happiness through their own strenuous efforts. Eighty percent of them could have been spared their handicap, had it been discovered and treated early enough.

I plead, therefore, for tests made by such means, and under such conditions, that scientific accuracy results, and for an intensive program of treatment of every case discovered.

THE HARD OF HEARING ADOLESCENT—ABSTRACT

G. OSCAR RUSSELL, DIRECTOR OF THE PHONETICS LABORATORY, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

As you look around among your friends and humanity in general, I am sure your general impression will be that the number of hard of hearing is more noticeable among those who are older than among those who are quite young. In the first place, when we pass from the age of childhood into that of adolescence, we carry along all those who were congenitally deaf and those who became deafened by reason of diseases of various types in the childhood period. But we add to these as the individuals in our adolescent group grow older all those whose hearing is impaired by reason of diseases which arise in the years which follow. Most of these are of course traceable to the fever diseases. There are measles, scarlet fever, spinal meningitis, and all of the innumerable running ears and other impairments of hearing resulting from colds, infections of the nose and throat passages.

We know that with the onset of puberty and later adolescence the bodily resistance of the individual is considerably lowered. The wastes which have to be thrown off are excessive. Infections of all kinds are therefore common. Then, too, if we fix the upper limit of adolescence from 18 to 25, we know that innumerable cases of congenital deafness fail to show very decidedly until the individual begins to grow into maturity. Hearing impairment in the individual is therefore likely to make rapid progress in this age.

What are we going to do about it? The individual is old enough in this period to take care of himself and realize that where infections arise which are likely to impair his hearing he should take precautions to reduce possible ravages as much as he can. I am not concerned with this question. There are some things which he cannot do for himself. One of those is test his own hearing regularly.

If the success of a student in school is so largely dependent upon his ability to understand what is being said around him and what the teacher says, it is quite essential that the school make provisions to aid the student in this respect as much as possible. The administration of a hearing test is now no more difficult than the administration of a reading test. I believe it is the duty of every school to administer the hearing test just as often as any other test is administered. The equipment of that school should be adequate for such a purpose. The teacher should be trained in this field. My conviction on the subject is so earnest that we have made provision in the Phonetics Laboratories at the Ohio State University for such training of teachers. Then the school may, where desired, turn the testing over to the nurse. But I see no necessity for this. The nurse, where one is provided, cares for the general health of the group, but this is not a question of health. This is a question of ability and the testing of ability, the improvement of ability, the prevention of loss of ability—to hear and understand what is being said and what is being done.

LIP READING OF VITAL VALUE TO THE HARD OF HEARING—ABSTRACT

ALICE G. BRYANT, M. D., OTOLOGIST AND LARYNGOLOGIST,
BOSTON, MASS.

The endowment of lip reading gives meaning to life. It is something more than an aid to speech transference. It means health, happiness, progress and goodwill. Today lip reading is far ahead of any other method for speech transference. Education is for the use, convenience, improvement and progress of pupils. Then why propagate inefficient education by denying the hard of hearing lip reading? Our education is for the hearing pupil, but with 3,000,000 hard of hearing pupils in our public schools, we must safeguard their development by providing lip reading. The hearing pupil has been protected, encouraged, and developed by education; meantime the hard of hearing pupil has been neglected, discouraged, and retarded. The latter have struggled to obtain an education—a freedom of thought and action, an educational liberty. They have expended unjustified energy and strength in the effort to hear. Keep ever in mind the curtailment of impressions received by the hard of hearing ear. We need to render every aid for prevention and improvement of ear defects, direct or indirect. Many of the hard of hearing pupils without lip reading meet failure or they are perilously near failure by class and grade repeatings. These conditions have led to many anomalies in their education. They have been the failures among the many triumphs.

The phonographic audiometer hearing tests should be used for every pupil. We need a broad and comprehensive survey—a national survey—of the matter of the hard of hearing. Money should be rightfully spent to meet the justified needs of the hard of hearing. The hard of hearing do not voice grievances in mere wantonness, they have such grievances. We need to increase methods of production, to improve the quality of output with equal education and equal utility. The hard of hearing will do more than survive, he will progress today and in the years to come.

LIP READING—AN IMPORTANT FACTOR IN THE REHABILITATION OF THE DEAFENED—ABSTRACT

CORALIE N. KENFIELD, TEACHER OF LIP READING, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

Teachers of lip reading use the term "the untrained deafened." To such teachers the term requires no explanation. To the layman some explanation is necessary. When progressive deafness besets the adult there is an accompanying weakening of certain mental qualities. We may say that there is a tearing down instead of a building up of poise or balance. Concentration gives way to inattention. Dependence gradually displaces independence.

We advise lip reading—Why? To enable one to acquire the ability to understand the spoken word? Yes, but for other reasons. We know of its *stabilizing* effect. In other words we would train the untrained deafened.

By means of the study of lip reading we do away with inattention, depression, lack of poise, mannerisms and such detrimental traits. We restore poise, both mental and physical.

Just what do we offer when we teach lip reading? We offer an incentive or purpose. The mind is directed forward and outward. We demand concentration. At first the mental effort required is almost superhuman. It is just this unsparing mental discipline that restores the balance and saves the day.

I think I can truthfully say that lack of concentration is the cause of the greater part of the trouble. The roving eyes give outward evidence of this fact. Focus the eyes on one point in the effort to gain understanding and we have won the first step in the effort at concentration. Let the hard of hearing child become accustomed to making this effort, difficult as it appears to be for a child to do so. Habits formed in childhood are quickly acquired, and easily carried forward to the time of awakening to the fact of the limitations imposed because of hearing loss, the period of adolescence when the heart of the physically handicapped child cries "I am different." Yes, he is "different" but trained since childhood in the art of lip-reading, he is able to adjust himself, and to go on toward adult life prepared to live with others and with himself in a comparatively normal manner, in spite of the handicap.

The adult when overtaken by progressive deafness has a far greater emotional readjustment to make. Adult life is mental life. It is introspective and personal. It is restricted in its interests and purposes, it is a life of emotions. Ambition, faith, hope, joy, love, satisfaction, and contentment are its goal, and then—the sense of hearing become less keen. Slowly but insistently the heart cries, "I cannot, I have not, I am not." Life becomes negative—until there is lip-reading. It is well to be definite. I would call the study of lip reading "deafness therapy." It offers as heretofore mentioned an incentive or purpose—that of understanding conversation.

It offers an intellectual pursuit. It affords the opportunity of a give and take of mental ideas. It opens a closed door. It stimulates to mental effort through competition. It awakens ambition in a desire to learn, and to broaden a mental horizon. It offers an opportunity for service.

I am a firm believer in the superiority of class instruction. From the foregoing one can easily understand that were the ability to read the lips all that is to be gained, from the study of lip reading the private lesson might offer greater advantages.

I have come to the conclusion that the teaching of lip reading is the least part of the teaching of lip reading. This seems paradoxical. Perhaps I should say that the teaching of lip reading is the least part of the training to which the deafened is entitled and to which he must needs be subjected.

It is often stated that there are some who for one reason or another do not become expert lip readers. This is true as it is true of all who would acquire an art. Some are born with the aptitude, but many acquire proficiency. Students falling short of proficiency are benefited in that they have made the effort and gained the goal of emotional rehabilitation.

The following words of Pasteur were recently brought to my notice: "A physician can sometimes cure, he can often alleviate, and he can always comfort." So it is with the teacher of lip reading. No matter what may be the result of lip-reading instruction, he can at least inspire.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session, Monday, June 30, 2 p. m.

President Caroline F. Kimball, presiding.

PROGRAM

IMPORTANCE OF EARLY DISCOVERY OF IMPAIRMENT OF HEARING
Dr. Russell G. Means of Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

HARD OF HEARING CHILDREN SHOULD NOT BE SEGREGATED
Dora Schulman, New York, N. Y.

LIP READING AN IMPORTANT FACTOR IN THE REHABILITATION OF THE DEAFENED
Coralie N. Kenfield, San Francisco, Calif.

Mr. Dunning of the Graybar Electric Co., Columbus, Ohio, explained the use of the audiometer and made hearing tests. There was an attendance of forty-one attentive and interested persons.

Tuesday, July 1, 2 p. m.

PROGRAM

THE HARD OF HEARING ADOLESCENT
G. Oscar Russell, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

LIP READING OF VITAL VALUE TO THE HARD OF HEARING
Dr. Alice G. Bryant, Boston, Mass.

VALUE OF SCIENTIFIC TESTS
Knibloe P. Royce, New York, N. Y. Mr. Royce was unable to be present. His paper was read by Mr. R. P. Dunning of the Graybar Electric Co., Columbus, Ohio.

Mr. Dunning also gave an audiometer exhibition. A letter was read from Dr. Bock of Rochester, N. Y., who was unable to attend because of illness. A telegram was received from Mr. Royce regretting his inability to attend. Attendance was thirty-eight.

Business Meeting, Tuesday, July 2, 1930

President Caroline F. Kimball presided. In the absence of the secretary, Marion Spring Clark was chosen secretary pro tem. Records of the last meeting were read and approved. Dora Schulman of New York, N. Y., was reelected to the National Council of Education for a term of six years. A vote of thanks to the local committee for valuable assistance in arranging for the Columbus meeting was taken.

Department of Rural Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION grew out of the Department of Rural and Agriculture Education which was authorized by the Board of Directors in 1907. See *Proceedings*, 1907:44-45. At the Chicago meeting in 1919, the Department was reorganized with three organized rural groups then existing—The National Association of State Supervisors and Inspectors of Rural Schools, The County Superintendents' section of the National Education Association, and the National Association of Persons Engaged in the Preparation of Rural Teachers—under the name of the Department of Rural Education. See *Proceedings*, 1920:279.

The Department meets twice each year, in February and in July.

The officers of the Department of Rural Education for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Rural Education, State Department of Education, Sacramento, Calif.; *Vice-president*, George Howard, Superintendent of Rowan County Schools, Salisbury, N. C.; *Secretary*, Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, Consultant in Special Problems, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*, Agnes Samuelson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa (Term expires 1931); J. C. Muerman, Southeastern State Teachers College, Durant, Okla. (Term expires 1932); C. H. Barnes, County Superintendent of Schools, Duluth, Minn. (Term expires 1933); M. S. Pittman, Director of Rural Education, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich. (Term expires 1934); Helen Heyl, Assistant in Rural Education, State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y. (Term expires 1935).

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1906: 716
1908:1187-1217
1909: 953- 993
1910:1081-1108
1911:1365-1391
1912:1365-1391
1913: 801- 812
1914: 877- 909
1915:1131-1161
1916: 613- 637
1917: 599- 615
1918: 271- 295
1919: 281- 289
1920: 271- 278
1921: 523- 617
1922-1099-1197
1923: 745- 841
1924: 651- 715
1925: 522- 563
1926: 536- 600
1927: 497- 560
1928: 453- 543
1929: 463- 542

CONTRIBUTIONS OF COUNTRY TO NATIONAL WELFARE AND CHARACTER—ABSTRACT

CARL C. TAYLOR, PROFESSOR OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY AND DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, NORTH CAROLINA STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND ENGINEERING, RALEIGH, N. C.

OUR RURAL heritage is the chief heritage of America, even though more than two-thirds of our people now live in towns and cities and less than one-third live on farms. First, because something like five millions of persons now living in American cities have gone there from the country in the last fifteen years. They were born and reared in country districts. Millions of additional city people are the children of parents who were country born and bred.

Second, because traditions and attitudes which arose in rural life during a period of three hundred years of a dominantly agricultural existence in this country, and thousand of years of open country living before America was settled, have woven themselves too deeply into national thought and attitude to be uprooted by twenty-five to fifty years of domination of city living and urban enterprises.

Third, because there is yet a constant interplay between rural areas and urban areas. The stream of culture does not run all one way, from city to country, but also runs steadily, day after day and year after year, from country to city.

The contributions of rural population to city population and life, are so great that many persons believe that cities could not survive were it not for rural immigrants. These rural migrants carry a powerful biologic or vital and dynamic influence into city life. This is not because rural-born people are inherently biologically superior to city-born people. At least an elaborate and careful study of available data does not prove this oft repeated theory.[1] Rather it is because the rural districts turn over to the cities hundreds of thousands of young men and women of just the ages when physical vitality is running at flood tide.

Whatever the exact contribution of the country to the city may be, it is true that 53.3 percent of the city's people are between the ages of fifteen and forty-five. The rural districts furnish hundreds of thousands of this most virile group and receive from the city practically none of these young and early middle-aged people.

The stream of population from country to city has been going on at an accelerated rate for a century and has been speeded up tremendously since 1900, at about which date the great era of westward expansion came to an end. During all this time country persons have been carrying country traditions and attitudes into city life and national life. One-third of our nation's population still resides on farms and at least an additional one-third, even though they live in cities, are carrying in their minds and habits the traditions of rural life and the attitudes developed out of the enterprise of farming. It would thus seem not to be violent to assume that we are yet a rural-made nation. It is not easy to measure the influence of the fact just stated. It is safe, however, to say that we, and no other part of modern civilization, know what either city life or national life would be if they were wholly or chiefly city-made.

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[1] Sorokin and Zimmerman, *Principles of Urban Rural Sociology*, Ch. 4.

The character of rural civilization is the great *constant* in civilization. City life and city processes are the *variables*. This is true not only because the country furnishes the great staples of physical life, food and clothing, and native hardihood but because rural people are themselves stable, conservative, and tenacious. They possess those very characteristics the decay of which gives students of modern civilization concern.

Farming places those who pursue it in contact with some great realities. It may at times and in places lead to a philosophy of fatalism, but it also leads to a philosophy of trust and faith and to a spirit of creativeness which is quite the opposite of fatalism. The soil and the climate are more to be counted on than the stock market. Even the seasons and the crops are not so fickle as are human relationships. Men lose their faith in life, and, therefore, lose their purposes, lose their interest, and even their way of life, not because of the precariousness of nature's ways but because of the precariousness of the ways of their fellowmen.

Farmers deal with living, growing, blooming, and bearing things. Eternal creation is taking place in their midst. They are participators in the process. Farmers depend not upon bosses, noonday whistles, and mass machine production, but upon a partnership between themselves and nature in the free enterprise of producing the fundamentals of all life—food, clothing, and shelter products. Modern farmers have even learned that to violate or wastefully exploit nature is sinful and to nurture it and conserve it is righteous.

To own and operate an enterprise of his own is the privilege of few others than farmers. This fact, plus those just named, creates a type of personality which no city enterprise of which I know can or does create. Cities may come and cities may go but the farmer must and will go on forever. His life may lack some of the amenities of impressionistic city life. Dirt may soil his clothes and fatigue and isolation dull his mind, but he is a part of "the growth of the soil." The tree, the flower, the growing grain, are all his kin. He is a part of nature because he springs, so to speak from nature's loins. To some few people, he yet may be "hick," "hayseed," "clodhopper," and "reuben," but he and his kind are an abiding part of the national landscape in both thought and deed. He who thinks otherwise is looking at the fringes and not the core of America.

The safeguarding of our national character and welfare depends in no small part upon the preservation of our rural heritage. The nation's concern for rural life should be more than an interest in "farm relief," although farm relief is needed, particularly relief from injustices which have for a full century been done by granting favors to city industries and enterprises in which the farm enterprise could not possibly participate. The nation's concern should be greater than that which is indexed by the establishing of a federal farm board or even by what might be accomplished if complete tariff equality were possible, although the establishing of a farm board is a constructive move and tariff equality is a just demand. The nation's concern should be for: First, the safeguarding of the generative force and vitality of its whole people (this force and vitality is contributed in great part by country life and country people); second, a solicitude for equal cultural opportunities for its country people (rural life now lags, not because it fails in its tasks, but because it lacks cultural opportunities and facilities); third, a clear recognition of the abiding and constant virtues of rural civilization which grow out of contact with nature, independent workmanship, and an open-eyed, frank democracy which used to be known by the name, "neighborliness."

I have but two concluding statements to make. First, I do not want to be interpreted as claiming that rural life has a monopoly on virtue, service, and character, or that rural life should be contrasted insidiously with city life. My topic bade me speak of the contributions of rural life. Second, I do, however, think that in an age gone mad on material values, prostituted by mercenary attitudes and wellnigh sold out to efficiency engineering, that the elements and character of our rural heritage should not only be recognized but cherished and safeguarded. This rural heritage is one whose standards and criteria still measure a man's worth by his skill in workmanship, insist upon the inherent worth of every human individual, and believes in a democracy resting upon the solid opinion of separate men and women. It is a heritage which human society fortunately has always had, which America still has, and which it should with all intelligence and passion seek to preserve.

CRITICAL SITUATIONS CONFRONTING COUNTRY LIFE TODAY—ABSTRACT

EDMUND DE S. BRUNNER, DIRECTOR OF TOWN AND COUNTRY SURVEYS,
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS RESEARCH; AND ASSOCIATE IN
RURAL SOCIOLOGY, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK, N. Y.

The rural heritage in America is precious in our sight; all the more so because of the contributions that rural America has made to the nation and to the world. It is a heritage so precious that it is worthy of the most jealous guardianship, and few groups are more concerned with its protection than the rural educators of the United States. But our conviction of the high importance of our task, our certainty of the superlative value of the best in rural life, must not blind us to the implications for our profession, of the changes that have taken place.

Think back ten years. The World War was just over. The American farmer was never more prosperous and looked forward to the best year of modern times. A high idealism gripped the nation and seemed to be manifesting itself in many ways. The country church had at least officially espoused the social gospel. The social agencies had discovered rural America and appeared to be moving to meet its social deficits. The rural school was in the heyday of the consolidation movement and, supported by the surplus wealth of rural America, was expanding and improving its program on every side.

What of today? Ten years have seen an unparalleled agricultural depression (approximately $23,000,000,000 have been lopped off the capital value of American farms since 1920), one of the greatest migrations of history in the rural exodus, a sharpening of the urban-rural conflict, a weakening of home, church, and school, a great forward surge in the process of urbanization.

The marginal farmer who financed himself with profit on rising land values is doomed. In the future, profits in agriculture will come as profits come in industry.

This means that social progress must be paid for out of earned, not unearned, surplus. This fact puts a new aspect to the question of financing school budgets and especially school buildings. Never has there been a time when the question of what a given community could afford was more important than now. What it can afford must be assessed in terms of *all* social needs not merely the needs of education.

My concern is with critical situations and our reactions to them, not with remedies, but if democracy means anything at all, it means that the strengthening of rural education must become the concern and responsibility of the entire nation and hence of the federal government.

The exodus to the cities has been tremendous. The decade just ended saw 15,000,000 people, nearly one-half of our farm population in 1920, leave their lands and turn cityward. It was a movement greater even than the European immigration from 1904 to 1914 and surpassed in modern times only by the surge of millions of Chinese into Manchuria.

The larger farm due to a mechanized agriculture, the larger trade area due to the automobile and the hard-surfaced road, are making it increasingly difficult to forecast school enrolments in the future, especially in the small districts. Other things being equal, economy in building may be better achieved over a period of years through consolidation than by building and maintaining many small schools.

An important implication in the shift of population is the loss of leadership that rural America has suffered. We are used to supplying the city with its leaders. The studies of one rural sociologist in these last years seem to show that it is the best and the poorest who leave the country for the city. We have placed vocational training in agriculture in our curriculums. We must now show the need and possibilities of rural leadership in all our teaching.

Of most immediate importance is the fact that the rural population has become a minority element in the total national population. In 1920 for the first time urban population slightly surpassed the rural. From 1920 to 1930 the farm population dropped from thirty to twenty percent of the national total. For 120 years of national life rural America, if united on anything, could achieve its ends by the power of its majority. This is still true in many states as the North Dakota and Minnesota farmers have shown several times in the last fifteen years.

Rural America, therefore, must use the methods of minority groups to achieve the ends it deems desirable. The importance of rural America must be stressed in every possible way. The city must realize that farmers are buying $7,000,000,000 worth of manufactured goods a year from urban industry, that they are furnishing not only food but also an unceasing stream of young people to replenish the urban population; that it is to the city's advantage to give to them that which will further its best development. To do this calls for leadership with a greater skill than has been shown in the past.

Leadership has become increasingly important in recent years because of the growing conflict between rural and urban interests. It is possible that this controversy may take its place with that between the north and south, and that between capital and labor, as one of the three great divisive issues that have disturbed the development of the United States. The Farm Bloc originally represented a clearcut break between the west and east, with the south as little more than a spectator. The battle has centered around the socalled McNary-Haugen Bill.

We have seen the same thing in these last months in the vote on the tariff bill that has been before Congress since last April. Senators from the agrarian states without regard to party have been voting as a unit against the old Guard Republicans, who are almost exclusively from the strongly urban states.

A minor cause in this rural-urban irritation, but one of major importance from the point of view of rural school specialists is the inequality of funds for social service and educational purposes as between city and country.

Similarly there is the problem of extending the newer and more specialized educational services to rural boys and girls, for instance the problem of vocational guidance. Some time ago The Institute of Social and Religious Research asked 5000 rural high-school boys and girls about their life work. The replies showed no knowledge of the opportunities of the present day.

Per capita health expenditures in cities are measured by dollars while in the country by cents and yet in these days of close interrelations rural health is a matter of vital concern to the city. One-tenth of our counties have health units. Four-fifths should have them.

Chairman Legge of the Federal Farm Board has stated that since 1921 American philanthropy has given away $17,000,000,000 of which only $1,000,000 has gone directly to the farmers. I question his figures somewhat. The contributions of the Rosenwald and other funds to negro rural communities must alone nearly equal if not exceed this sum; but the main point is correct. The city's romantic creation of the machine with its myriad contrasts of assets and liabilities has captured philanthropy's imagination; so has the unusual archeology, anthropology in the South Seas, the cradle of man in the Gobi Desert or the Nile River Valley, the South Pole, the ocean bottom—all worthy, interesting items for research. But why not some to grapple with the problems of the farmer? Why not amid all the foundations one whose interest shall be the human side of agriculture?

Finally, I believe that the process of urbanization is creating a series of situations that have in them elements of danger to our rural heritage. I believe we will the sooner overcome these influences if we recognize them.

The mechanization of agriculture and of the housework of the rural home is part of the process of urbanization. It neither can nor should be checked. The radio links the farmer and villager, however distant, with the best music of the world, popularizes subjects of national and world concern, and makes the voice of the nation's chief executive as familiar to the countryman as that of his grocer. But it also carries something of the spirit of the jazz age, the glorification of speed and superficiality of the city. The moving pictures do even more; it is their mediocrity that is their chief harm. It is a distorted view of life that the average feature shows but the high-school boy and girl have not the experience and maturity to evaluate what they see. It is not only the Asiatic and European who gain a distorted view of American urban life from the moving pictures. So, too, the urban press is circulating more and more in the countryside but it has not yet taken its rural constituents much into account and its influence is not always wholly good. All these things have intensified the restlessness of rural youth and too many of them, well over two-thirds of those interviewed by the Institute of Social and Religious Research, are planning to leave their home communities.

Influences such as these have undermined the influence of those basic social agencies, the home and school. A period of transition such as this is always critical. If the pendulum swings too far it takes humanity or the social group concerned a long, weary period to work back to what experience proves to be of abiding value. To face the new age but to conserve the best of the old, to follow truth wherever it leads and apply it, to be open-mindedly critical of our methods but alert to our dangers and courageously loyal to our fundamental purposes—this is the high adventure of the rural educator today.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE AND RURAL EDUCATION TO WORLD ADVANCEMENT—ABSTRACT

THOMAS JESSE JONES, EDUCATIONAL DIRECTOR, PHELPS-STOKES FUND, NEW YORK, N. Y.

International peace and world advancement are, eventually, more dependent upon the achievements and ideals of American rural life than upon disarmament conferences, the World Court, or even the League of Nations. This extraordinary observation is based on the conviction, first, that peace and progress must be rooted in the welfare of the masses of the people and, second, that American rural experience is destined to work out methods and ideals of life of vital meaning to the billion rural peoples of the world.

Internationally, the most significant of all facts, and one too frequently overlooked, is that fully two-thirds of the earth's population are living in villages and in the open country. Until these millions have a chance to live decently and justly, there is little hope for permanent peace. Asia, Africa, and the Pacific Islands are ninety percent rural, and their people as a whole are far below the standards of decent living in such essentials as health, material welfare, and the necessities of home and family life. Similar conditions prevail among the majority of the people of South America. Even Europe and North America must admit that some millions of their rural peoples are subjected to disgraceful economic and social conditions that are breeding discontent and war.

In view of such ominous conditions it is most surprising that students of international affairs seem to be so completely unaware of the drastic need for rural statesmanship to deal directly with the special problems of rural life. With full appreciation of the League of Nations, the World Court, disarmament conferences, and such general principles as selfdetermination and democracy, there is a demand for a more intelligent and a more sincere understanding of the common essentials of community life and, above all, of the essentials of rural life. At present the methods and aims of education, religion, philanthropy, and government are primarily concerned with urban rather than with rural peoples. Likewise the needs and demands of the industrial and commercial groups have with few exceptions monopolized the minds of statesmen and filled the front pages of newspapers.

In all this depressing picture of rural peoples throughout the world, there are a few outstanding and significant exceptions. I refer to the rural heritage and rural achievements of the United States and Canada and Northwestern Europe. However serious our rural problems in these United States may be, we are far and away ahead of most other countries. Rural education, farm demonstration, home demonstration, health activities, 4-H Clubs, and many other rural movements are examples and demonstrations of the modes of the American approach to rural life. All these practical movements and their enduring results are rooted in the pioneer heritage of America. Herein is the explanation of America's devotion to the soil and to the people who live on the soil. Herein is the basis of America's determination to preserve individuality and to combat present trends toward artificial standardization. Herein, too, is the fountain-head of America's belief in all the people without regard to class, color, or previous condition.

What, then, is America doing to transmit the influence of both these practical methods and of this high idealism to the rural peoples of other parts of the world? By no means what we should have done. We are far from realizing the truth of the injunction that "to whom much is given, of the same shall much be expected." However, there are some significant beginnings which may be the harbingers of still greater services.

Strange as it may seem to you, the most sincere carriers of American rural experiences and idealism to other parts of the world are the Christian missionaries of every faith. While the direct purpose of missions has been religious propaganda, a considerable number of them have been effective demonstrators of the best attainments of American country life.

An increasing number of these religious workers are thoroughly equipped in agriculture and in the theory and practise of rural activities as presented in our best colleges and universities. They are men and women who personify the best American standards of education and life. In every continent of the earth they are pioneering in the effort to impart to the native people the fullness of life—economic, social, and spiritual.

Through cooperation with the British Colonial Office, American methods and ideals of rural education are being adopted in British Colonies throughout the world. *Oversea Education,* an educational journal published for the Colonial Office by the Oxford University Press, reflects the practical idealism so characteristic of the United States Department of Agriculture and rural education in our middlewest. The British Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies knows and believes in the methods and objectives of farm demonstration, home demonstration, the traveling school, the visiting teacher, and similar practical arrangements for village and rural education.

The Director of Education for Palestine reporting on village schools, writes:

> Many schools already have gardens and small plantations, but insufficient attention has been paid in the past to the agricultural and practical side of village education, and the recent appointment by the Department of a supervisor of school gardens has already effected some improvement in this direction, and has given great satisfaction among the rural population.

American philanthropy in the Near East also offers some examples of rural ideals abroad. Among the definite expressions of this interest is the work of the Salonica Farm School in Macedonia. The program of the institution includes farming, industry, health, general culture, and other elements of education for service to the Balkan villages. The Near East Relief has from the beginning endeavored to train the orphans for selfsupport either in the villages or in the cities around the Aegean Sea. At present the Conservation Committee of this organization is initiating plans for the wider application of the methods of rural education throughout the countries where the orphans are living. The successful operation of the plan will doubtless have a profound influence on the welfare of the rural and village masses of countries so perennially subjected to the havocs of poverty, disease, and ignorance.

American pioneer and rural heritage is thus making some contribution to international welfare. No reference has been made to the important international functions of commercial organizations such as the manufacturers of farm machinery now used in every continent. Unfortunately, it is not possible to mention other American movements and activities of significance to the rural peoples of the world. The aim of this discussion has been, first, to show the importance of American rural ideals to humanity and, second, to urge that as a nation we are only at the beginning of the rural service which we owe to world peace and human progress.

THE ORGANIZATION OF FARMERS AND RURAL-URBAN COOPERATION—ABSTRACT

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Advancement in rural education and in social welfare generally is to a considerable degree dependent upon strong farmers' organizations and real cooperation between rural and urban leaders. Progress in rural education is, I recognize, dependent upon other very important factors, but I wish to bring these two into the picture as definitely as I can.

I was asked recently to meet with thirty representative leaders of Springfield, Ohio, and thirty representative farmers and farm women who lived in the nearby rural communities. They said, "We are here to consider the most serious difficulties which have arisen between rural and city people and what things we can do together in order to improve the situation." I suggested that we start talking things over by stating what the main difficulties and conflicts had been. We soon had a great array. There were conflicts and misunderstandings over tuberculin testing, over taxation, over the fact that the city had libraries and the country did not, over the absence of social work in the country, and particularly over the fact that country schools were *by every recognized test* less adequate than the city schools.

For what reasons are rural-urban difficulties so acute? Just a few simple facts: (1) The farm population is now about twenty-three percent of our total population but it has had since 1921 only about ten percent of the total income of the people of the United States; (2) Our tariff policy is a great source of dissatisfaction. Other aspects of federal government policy are severely criticized by farm leaders. That their complaints are largely justified is the finding of Dr. John D. Black of the Economics Department of Harvard University, in a notable new book, *Agricultural Reform in the United States.*

Undoubtedly the American system of protective legislation has become a major reason for serious differences. The drive for McNary-Haugenism, with the controversial equalization fee, was during the years 1922-28 one of the most general manifestations of the opposing interests of urban and agrarian populations.

The increasing penetration of urbanization into the farm areas is making many want to resist it and to develop a distinctly rural culture and civilization. *American Farming,* in a recent editorial, pleads that small communities should acquire more "backbone" and should organize along distinctly rural lines in order to rebuff the onslaughts of urbanization.

Clarence Poe, editor of *The Progressive Farmer,* and a leading agricultural statesman of the south, echoes a somewhat similar view when he writes: "Humanity . . . needs a vigorous rural civilization as the only antidote for the evils of excessive urbanization." He goes on to say that there is every danger now that "farmers shall be regarded merely as 'food producers,' maintaining thereby a civilization whose art, drama, literature, educational policies, and general culture are dominated solely by our towns and cities."

Just as cities divide with rural groups on certain public issues, so difficulties arise between villagers and the surrounding countryside in spite of the fact that nearly all villages are largely dependent for their resources upon farmers' trade, and farmers and villagers are inseparably bound in many rural communities.

There are those who believe that the conflict between country and city is irrepressible and cannot be solved. I disagree and see evidences of increasing cooperation and view the situation more hopefully. Whatever the ultimate outcome, there are instances of cooperation which should be considered.

Kiwanis International has a national agricultural committee, recommends that all local clubs should have one, and urges all clubs to have farmers adequately represented in the membership. The president of Kiwanis International recently declared that "agriculture is the most important social problem of the hour." The organization has recently published a book on *Urban-Rural Relations.*

The report of the Business Men's Commission on Agriculture, appointed jointly by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States and the National Industrial Conference Board, is evidence of the concern of certain business leaders to do something worthwhile in relation to agriculture.

A southern town contemplating the organization of an industrial committee first asked itself what its largest industry was. It was decided that the business which the surrounding farmers brought was the most important factor in its life. It therefore put a majority of farmers on the committee. Town-country cooperation was thus obtained for that community.

It is now common for city organizations of various kinds to cooperate with the work of the federal, state, and local agricultural extension service. They have particularly encouraged farm boys and girls to join the junior agricultural clubs.

Here and there a city church is linked with one or more country churches for the purpose of mutual aid. The Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. find a number of cities and their surrounding constituencies ready to work together upon programs. Among educators the necessity of rural-urban cooperation for the purpose of achieving equality of opportunity for rural children is increasingly recognized. I think it is generally recognized that we must educate the business leaders of Boston, New York, Chicago, St. Louis, etc., in order to get federal aid for rural schools.

But all too little progress has been made in testing the rural-urban approach to major social problems. It is evident that a new kind of educational cooperation between these two groups is needed. Leaders who can gain the confidence of both sides are essential, and the farm group must be interpreted to the city group and vice versa. The urban community and the farm community do not now speak the same langauge. They must if the conflicts which have arisen between them are to be solved.

It is sometimes said that the farm group stands alone, unorganized, in an organized world. That is not an altogether accurate generalization. For example, the great majority of city workers are not organized at all. It is evident, however, that agriculture is certainly a poorly organized industry when compared with the degree of integration which the corporate form of organization gives to urban industry. Organization proceeds very slowly among the farm group. That is discouraging to some of us, but we must be patient. Agriculture is a peculiar industry. It takes much time to build strong agricultural organizations. They say it took a generation to build the strong Danish cooperatives.

We have many types of farmers' organizations, but we are, perhaps, particularly interested in:

(1) The general educational types, of which the largest are the American Farm Bureau Federation and the National Grange. These can do much more to advance rural education than we have yet realized.

(2) The cooperatives—mainly organized for marketing in the United States. Farmers business organizations now have over 3,000,000 members. Allowing for duplicates, i. e., farmers who belong to more than one organization, certainly 2,000,000 farm operators, or one-third of the total, belong to farmers business organizations, mainly cooperatives for marketing. The spread of cooperative marketing is certainly the largest single post-war movement in rural America. It offers many benefits, in the form of lowering the costs of marketing, in more stabilized and higher price levels. But it takes much time to create a cooperative marketing machine that will bring substantial benefits. Here education plays a part. Cooperatives can only be

held together by sound educational procedures. And it must always be recognized that the best cooperatives have definite economic limitations.

Right here we must recognize that many farm leaders hold that *voluntary organization* among farmers will never be enough, and that more governmental assistance is necessary. In July of last year the federal government set up the Federal Farm Board to supplement the activities of the voluntarily organized cooperatives. The Federal Farm Board is given certain functions in marketing. It does not buy or sell. It gives information and advice and makes loans to cooperative marketing organizations or to stabilization corporations which they may create. It is endeavoring vigorously to become a stabilizing factor in several commodity markets. Considerable time must elapse before its influences may be definitely measured and discussed. We must study it and watch it.

The chief thing to recognize is that the trend is toward greater cooperation and stronger organization. Also, we must recognize that strong organization is necessary for the protection of farmers and for the improvement of the economic position of the industry; that stronger farm organization can do much for rural education; and finally that when once we have stronger farm organizations and have better organized farmers dealing with organized city groups there will be more fairness than there is at present in rural-urban relations.

LEADERSHIP AND RURAL ADULT EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

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Three elements are involved here—rural heritage, rural leadership, and adult education; the second and third of these being a part of the first.

The rural heritage is not easily defined or described because it is the cumulative total of surviving mores and possessions from three centuries of American experience. Its content ranges from priceless to worthless. We are concerned today with the portion that has social and esthetic value for the future; and in this paper we are concerned chiefly with those intangible values of character and custom which have been the strength of our rural life and which are, in our judgment, vital to the successful continuance of our civilization.

The American rural heritage shows great variety, the inevitable result of adaptation to different conditions. The older rural portions of the east have a stabilized culture whose patterns were well fixed until the rural-urban interpenetration of the last decade began. The newer areas were in rapid change even before the automobile came to speed the process. Two major streams of culture have rolled across the continent, one from the northern seaboard, and one from the southern, intermingling and blending in many places. The northern stream received valuable additions from

Germanic and Scandinavian settlements. The southern stream felt some influence from the northward infiltration of the Latin culture from the Gulf and Mexican regions. Adaptability is seen in all places, including even the isolated areas of deficient economic possibility; although in the latter it has been manifest either by ability to move out of the area or by ability to reduce wants to a mere survival level. In all other areas the rural civilization has developed because of the balance between tenacious holding of the social virtues that have proved valuable, and willingness to change quickly under pressure of new conditions. Individual selfreliance and resourcefulness have been balanced by a strong cooperative habit. Perhaps the most distinctive characteristic has been the American genius for spontaneous informal organization under whatever leadership was available within the group, an ability which enabled rural communities to continue many institutional and professional functions even though professional leadership was lacking.

Rural leadership has been both professional and lay. Both have been effective, and both are needed in the future. As the problems of rural life become more technical and more collective, the need for trained professional leadership increases. Better trained teachers in public school and extension service are replacing those who drop out. Trained managers for cooperative organizations are replacing the lay managers under whom the cooperatives had to make their start. The generalization is sound, I believe, that in technical matters the professional leader will replace the voluntary leader. Exception to this is in the use of voluntary leaders in the cooperative extension program in agriculture and home economics, which at present uses a quarter of a million men and women as local leaders under the professional leadership of the county agent and the home demonstration agent.

In the field of social and intellectual life, however, I am convinced that the lay leader will continue. In fact, I hope that the professional will never displace the layman, or so direct social and intellectual activity that rural people yield their vigorous, active individualism for passive conformism. Richness of life is in part dependent on selfexpression. Rural voluntary groups have given the best opportunity for selfexpression, and in these groups the contest of ideas has developed and tested the leaders for community life. The professional leader in recreation has an important place in the future as a source of information, stimulation, and counsel, but not as a director.

It is true, then, of all rural life that leaders have a more complex and difficult task than did leaders in a simpler economy; that their problems are more intricate; that analytic ability must be greater and that a much wider range of accurate information must be available. This means continual education.

Rural adult education has always been informal as compared with urban. It has been achieved for the most part by a sharing of the knowledge and wisdom of the people within a community. Its level has depended on the degree of education and ability of its own community leaders. This level is constantly rising as more of the individuals in a community receive higher education, and as the channels are improved by which information flows to a community. It is my judgment that rural America will always depend on the informal processes of adult education more than will urban America; and furthermore that this is gain rather than loss, provided there is a reasonable contact with educational leadership and with the materials of cultural growth. I look for better adult educational service from the rural school, the library, and the extension service, but I hope that it will be on the basis of cooperation with the student-group, and will never become essentially instruction of adult students by professionals. I look for the professional training of leaders in the technical phases of rural life, but I pray for the greatest possible preservation of spontaneous adult educational activity of rural people in the non-technical phases of life. Only by this process will the essence of our rural heritage—the combination of ideals and dynamic forces which has enabled rural communities to make progressive adaptation to the opportunities of our constantly evolving economic and social life—be preserved.

A RESEARCH OFFICE AND RURAL EDUCATION

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It has been suggested that the Commissioner of Education say a few words about what service those who work in rural schools should expect from the United States Office of Education. The Office of Education includes in its interests and plans for service each and every administrator, supervisor, or teacher in the schools of the forty-eight commonwealths of this nation. The Office of Education is charged by law for studying all phases of education and publishing the findings. The problems of education are certainly not primarily territorial in nature; rather are they functional.

However, someone may well inquire: "Is an agricultural state as well prepared to support its schools as a commonwealth with highly developed industrial and commercial activities?" My off-hand answer is, that very likely it is not and for two reasons: First, a different ratio between number of children of school age and taxable wealth usually prevails in an industrial area from that which exists in an agricultural area. The second reason is that the industrialized area is likely to have developed new systems of measuring its wealth and of obtaining therefrom revenue for the support of public undertakings. Another may ask: "Are there not problems in administration and supervision in rural areas which do not appear in urban areas?" For purposes of administration there is merit in considering schools as existing in urban areas and in rural areas. Yet there are in this country large union school districts, consolidated districts, and township districts which are primarily rural and yet possess a large nucleus of strictly urban population. In some of the New England towns I am told that there are several nuclei of urban character in a district still recognized legally as primarily rural in nature. There is at least one of the very largest city school districts in this country which finds itself confronted with many problems primarily rural in type.

Let us consider a general classification of the vital issues in education and how a research organization may attack them. I shall adopt here the large generalization of Professor Kilpatrick who uses three general categories: the theoretical, the practical or administrative, and the measurement aspects of education.

In the first category fall those propositions in the purposes of education, its aims and objectives. Here we have pronouncements of philosophers and sociologists to consider. And here are reports of committees, the Committee of Ten, of Fifteen; of Seven in History; etc. In many of our teachers colleges and university schools of education, this field gets minor attention. Yet these are problems in the solution of which philosophy, history, and sociology may make important contributions.

In the second category will be problems in the administration of education, including certain aspects of it which now are put, improperly, I believe, under the heading "supervision." It is concerned also with the very important problems of finance and with the equally important problems of personnel. In many schools of education today professors who are concerned with this phase of the subject are in the ascendency. In a business age striving for the elimination of waste and speeding itself up to even higher levels of efficiency this field should be expected to assume great prominence. To it, political science, economics, and principles of business administration have contributions to make.

In the third category we place all efforts to measure results. Ever since Jones made his investigation in spelling and Binet published his first experiments in measuring intelligence, progressive educators have focused their attention upon this aspect of the work and to it psychology, mathematics, and some of the sciences have made valuable contributions. Out of these efforts have come the multitudes of achievement tests and many socalled intelligence tests.

If we accept as a major premise that the proper function of the Federal Office of Education is research, and attempt to coordinate it with the categories indicated by Professor Kilpatrick, we discover at once certain limitations upon our activities. The Office of Education cannot concern itself very largely with the first or theoretical field. We can record movements designed to put into language the objectives of education in a democracy. We can describe experiments and the results obtained. Moreover, the Commissioner and members of his staff may, in public addresses and in magazine articles, provoke thought along these lines. Nor does the Office of Education have, except in the Territory of Alaska, any children under its direct control. Therefore, our staff is prevented from conducting research of a fundamental character in the third or measurement field. We can ascertain what the schools are doing and tell you about the results. We plan, however, to take full advantage of our opportunities in Alaska and expect our new Division of Special Problems to give attention to this field. On the basis of real investigations we hope to develop courses of study and perfect teaching technics for use with indigenous peoples.

Obviously then, our major work must lie in the practical field concerned chiefly with administration in the larger sense. As now organized we have two plans for attacking these problems: First, with our regular staff; and second, with such special recruits as may be furnished us from time to time.

Let me give you the organization of our regular shock troops. On the right wing is a staff called the "Division of Collegiate and Professional Education." It must contend with the problems of that group of boys and girls whose mental capacities and financial abilities will enable them to proceed through the colleges and professional schools. Although this group embraces not over ten or fifteen percent of our population, it will be in school longer than the others and from it the leaders in a complex society must be developed.

The center is held by a staff called the Division of American Schools. Its concern is with the education of the great numbers of children who will receive general education through elementary and lower secondary schools at least; with those who wish vocational training on secondary school level; and with the citizenship, health, and avocational education of all.

On the left wing stands a highly specialized staff to meet the problems of the cripple, the partially-sighted, the hard-of-hearing, and otherwise physically-handicapped, the mentally deficient, the socially delinquent, and the underprivileged. There are also those whom I term "indigenous peoples." They either have been unwilling or perhaps are unable to adapt themselves to a complex industrialized stage of society. All these persons constitute not over fifteen to twenty percent of the entire population of the country. They have had few champions. They will now find earnest friends in the specialists who constitute the Division of Special Problems. Its staff is now being built slowly and carefully. I pass as not pertinent to this discussion the other divisions in the Office that I may consider problems in which educators working in rural areas may be interested.

Were I to ask what some of the outstanding problems are, I believe that most of you would call attention to poorly-prepared teachers, inadequate equipment, and obsolete schoolhouses as among the outstanding handicaps of the rural child. It seems to me that these are all likely to prove, upon investigation, to be manifestations of one thing, namely, inadequate financial support. But this only opens up the question. Is this inadequate financial support due to insufficient wealth to support a good system of schools, or is it due to an obsolete system of school administration which retains school district units adapted to an ox-cart stage of civilization; or is it due to a system of taxation which developed when wealth generally could be measured in terms of land and improvements thereon; or to some other cause? In brief, the situation manifests itself to us in terms of its effects rather than in terms of its fundamental causes. We now have in the Office of Education one specialist devoting his entire time to the field of school finance. Insofar as the problems of inadequate school support appear of concern to those who are living in rural areas to just that extent will this specialist give his time and attention to rural areas.

Some may say that the most perplexing problems involved pertain to what state and county school officials term "supervision;" that such present more difficulties in rural areas than in urban areas. Supervision is an educational subject concerned primarily with the improvement of the teaching act. Insofar as the Office of Education can assist state and local school officials in improving the technics which supervisors will use with teachers, just that far is our Office prepared to go. It has on its staff specialists in school supervision and in school administration in each division. Suppose for the sake of argument that we discover problems far too complicated for this regular line to handle. For such a situation we expect to recruit our staff under special authority from Congress.

Congress has recognized such a situation in authorizing a survey of the land-grant colleges, and in appropriating $117,000 for it. This study, under the direction of Dr. Arthur J. Klein, is nearing completion. Likewise at the earnest request of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools assisted by other professional organization groups, Congress was induced to authorize a nationwide survey of secondary education. This study, which is to be completed within three years is now under way, directed by the Commissioner of Education and Dr. Leonard V. Koos of the University of Chicago. You may be interested in the formation of one of these temporary battalions. On the Secondary Survey staff are nine expert consultants called to Washington from time to time for general criticism and suggestion as to activities to be studied. There is an advisory committee called together at the time of the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence, representing all phases of the field concerned. For instance, there are representatives of partime education, vocational education, guidance, extracurriculum activities, libraries, and the like; there are some who know firsthand the large urban high school, the small urban school, the small rural high school, the three-year senior high school, the junior high school, the four-year township high school, and other units peculiar to different territories; there are also those interested in articulation of secondary schools with the units below and above. It is the function of these people to bring to the attention of the survey staff all aspects of secondary education. In addition we expect to have the advice and criticism of an equal number of outstanding laymen. As the survey proceeds reports and tentative findings will be submitted to each of them. In Cleveland last year the American Association of Teachers Colleges initiated a request for an appropriation to study the preparation of teachers. This program may meet with success.

If so, an organization similar in scope to that now engaged in studying secondary education will be called into existence. It is conceivable that studies in school finance and in other fields will follow as you show need. Requests for such studies should be made in terms of function and recognition of the fields of educational research rather than in terms of such secondary characteristics as territorial areas, racial considerations, or units of administration. No educator need feel that the staff of the Office of Education will regard such a request as a reflection on their work. Your Commissioner prefers a staff of special workers authorized by Congress to make an intensive study of a particular aspect of education or of a pressing problem in the field to a large permanent staff in the Washington Office.

I can assure you that any problem brought to the attention of our staff will receive the consideration of our present specialists. I invite your coöperation in our efforts to meet problems of great importance to our country. We have every confidence in your ability to administer the schools if you have the basic data on which to formulate policies. We believe that we are now organized to get this basic data for you.

AN ENRICHED AND ADAPTED CURRICULUM—ABSTRACT

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The school should be an interpretive as well as a supplementary agency in education. On visiting backward peoples, illiterate and without schooling, we are astonished to find considerable proficiency in arithmetic. What, proficient in arithmetic without schooling? Yes, and proficient also in oral language, in story-telling. Perhaps, we should give more heed to those prophets among us who find that a considerable part of children's increased achievement is due to maturity. Just living a little longer is going to teach some of the things about which we agonize ourselves and children. Therefore in discussing enrichment and adaptation I am ignoring the tool subjects which are simply means to educational ends.

Many administrators have said that there is no curriculum problem in the country school once cheap transportation and consolidation have put the children into a graded system. This assumption is based on that "old man of the sea" in American education, that learning comes entirely from books, that it is a sum total of matter to be poured in. The consolidated school does not even solve the problem administratively unless there is conscious effort toward adaptation. Too often the children using the buses have practically no opportunity to engage in extracurriculum activities. Frequently there is no consideration for the child who, having passed his early educational years in the small age group of the one-room school, finds himself at a disadvantage in social achievement when put alongside his classmates in the consolidated school who have had the advantage of large like-age groups. A third important factor in the situation is the traditional opposing attitude of some rural parents. This is a problem for adult education and practical compromise. The rural child should not be sacrificed to the convictions of parents or the unalterable ideals of curriculum makers.

Ignoring the background of farm children whether they be in a one-room or in a consolidated school is a frequent practise in making curriculums for country children. Several fallacious assumptions support this practise. We have not yet learned that rich opportunity does not necessarily mean identical opportunity. The study of agriculture as an industry may be the key to the modern industrial world for the country child. But agriculture as a vocationalized study; agriculture as a major modern industry; and, country resources as educational means rather than ends have all three been confused. Country teachers often meet the problem by ignoring all of them. Partly responsible for this attitude may be an apparently waning interest in nature study. Life, like chemistry, is organic and inorganic. As long as man himself remains an organic entity the biological sciences will be an important element in the curriculum. The mechanical side of life has captured the imaginations of many geniuses during the last fifty years until we hear it said that man may fall victim to his own machines. Splendid leaders in industrial arts education have fostered that element in the curriculum. Nature study especially in country schools has tended to wilt and fade away as unjustifiable in a mechanical world.

Those who have given industrial arts such a prominent place in our curriculum point to the change in the home which has taken most of the industries away from it. Few leaders seem to stress the fact that the home has moved away from original sources of biological knowledge also. This is true in the country as well as the urban centers. Without depending unduly on transfer of training there are undoubtedly enough identical elements in nature study and other human life situations to warrant retaining it in the curriculum. Observation of plant and animal life should tend to promote a better understanding of the laws which govern biological humanity and hence provide immunity from certain social ills.

Surely the relation between biology and psychology is fundamental to our social problem of helping human beings manage themselves most profitably. The relation between psychology and government is far-fetched only in reality, not in our hopes. Various forms of nature study and biology will need to be emphasized in the curriculum of any school if the school is to prepare the individual to cope with the biological problems of civilization. Plant and animal evolution are unquestionably as significant to man as the evolution of transportation. The evolution of modern domestic plants and animals has much more social value than is ordinarily recognized. The value of such knowledge to the citizen is not the sole justification for nature study.

For observation of nature is a sequential process akin to thought, and, in this character is filling a lack in our schools. The school should dignify this knowledge by giving it organization and coherence in its relation to life. The product of the modern school is too prone to feel conscientiously occupied only when speaking, writing, reading, or carrying on other overt activity. There is a need for confidence in the respectability of steady leisured observation of nature. Such activity offers rich possibilities for building up ideas of cause and effect; sequence; and thought wholes. The fact that quiet observation and the organization of ideas must precede speech or written notation is of especial value. Country resources are important in their relationship to intellectual development. They are important too, in stimulating esthetic and recreational responses. In many country sections close to shore and river one needs an adding machine to total the number of rural boys who cannot swim, not to mention the girls. Yet, almost one-third of the deaths of boys from five to fifteen are from drowning. Courses in swimming for youngsters in city swimming pools will not solve this safety education problem for the country child.

There are more personal problems which call for adaptation. It is necessary to discard the picture of the old fashioned farm furnishing milk, butter, fruit, and vegetables to its robust children. Rural agricultural industry is undergoing great specialization. If one sojourns now in certain sections of the country it may be necessary to visit nearby towns or cities to get fruit, vegetables, and milk. A recent study shows that in a certain section the parents of one-third of the children own cows and but half of the children have milk to drink. Country schools should make use of the wild and domestic animals present in the community, to make visualization an aid in diet studies. Greater cooperation between county farm agent, nutrition workers, and the school should help to get better reaction on the part of children to their diet problems.

The urban child needs to know the importance of voting money to keep up an adequate water supply. The country child needs to know how to distinguish a good country water supply from a bad one. Some practical knowledge of such factors is an important part of the safety education of each child if it can be justified on no other score.

The curriculum of the country child needs study. Neither consolidation nor cheap transportation have solved his problem. Country communities are becoming more sharply differentiated. During an increasing era of specialization their differences will grow. As has been suggested by a national committee the problems of country children in districts being abandoned probably merit special agencies to aid in their solution. Most important of all, rich opportunity for country children does not mean identical opportunity.

STANDARD PREPARATION AND SUPERVISION FOR THE TEACHERS OF FARM CHILDREN—ABSTRACT

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Three hundred or more problems reported by a sampling of 157 rural teachers scattered through fifteen counties in New York State suggest the need for a new program in rural teacher training and new procedures in rural supervision.

For a long time I have held the belief that we can develop teachers best by first helping them with what they feel to be their needs now. And so, some months ago when the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction began the study of supervisory problems which has resulted in their Third Yearbook, we requested permission for a cross section of New York rural teachers to participate. It seemed probable that, if given opportunity, these teachers might suggest needed modifications in present procedures by pointing out the difficulties which they are facing.

According to typical problems reported, the teacher-training program should include not only special courses in rural education, as generally recognized; but at least two new courses, one in child development, the other in homemaking applied to school living. In addition, apparently there is need for reorganization and greater integration of courses in professionalized subjectmatter as now offered.

INHERENT CONTRIBUTIONS OF AMERICAN FARM LIFE TO THE NEW EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

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"Inherent" means something "indwelling," something "sticking to," something permanently belonging. And we ask ourselves first of all: "What is there that is inherent in farm life, that sticks to the farm, that will not move to town, with the urban trend, and that has a contribution to make to education."

That which comes first to my thought is that on the farm one is in the presence of the Creator of all things. He is not patently inherent in the city, where man shuts away all sight and sound of Him save in the narrow stretches of parks or riverfront, and even in these it is difficult to be conscious of else than the man-made environment. On the farm one has to deal directly with the eternal forces, whereas in the city everything is of man's planning and building. I shall never forget the day that a neighbor plough-boy was struck by lightning in a field nearby. The Almighty was there as Zeus was to the Greeks. The seasons come with ceaseless change in the country, and life ensuing death in nature is ever making its demonstration of the resurrection; whereas in the city there are only changes in temperature, mitigated by furnace heat and refrigerator cold, with lights that even put out the stars by night and buildings that shut out the sun by day. We are now talking of getting on without the sun altogether in windowless, sound-proof apartments.

There is also this inherent contribution in farm life—that the youth is taught that he has a continuing part in creation. I have walked or ridden through every county of the great state in which I now live. I have seen the vineyards of Chautauqua, the farms of the Mohawk, the pastures of the St. Lawrence, the forests of the Adirondacks, the flowergardens of the Hudson, the geranium window-boxes of Manhattan, the asparagus beds of Oyster Bay, and the seaweed shores of Suffolk. And seeing, I have marveled at the varied productivity of a soil which, like a magician, brings forth now a turnip and now a peach, now an onion and now a rose, and in the seasons' round everything from a homely Irish potato to an exquisite orchid. The fields are full of mystery and miracle.

But as I have ridden on the railroads or walked in the highways, with narrow strips of waste ground on either side of the track, or road filled with weeds or wild flowers or stunted bushes, I have been made conscious that the Almighty is dependent upon man for the working of these miracles of the fields. He can make, unaided of man, potatoes, but only small potatoes and of acrid taste. His wild grapes are sour and small. He had to make a primitive man and even teach him to use a hoe before He, the Omnipotent One, could grow a patch of potatoes or make an arbor of Concord grapevines. Then He had to teach boys and men chemistry (the uses of Paris Green and arsenate of lead), plant physiology, and soil physics before He could make Early Rose potatoes or wheat that will grow up toward the Arctic circle. My university classmate, John R. Commons, said that he did not see why there is not as much idealism in breeding a perfect animal or a Wisconsin No. 7 ear of corn as there is in "chipping a Venus de Milo" or erecting a Parthenon, which is to say that utilitarianism is "the democracy of idealism." Idealism is for the farm youth, working in partnership with the Almighty in making the perfect product.

Then there is also inherent in farm life the whole sequence of Genesis after the first day of creation. The Paleozoic, the Mesozoic, the Cenozoic ages are about the farm youth. The Devonian period shows itself in the minnows in the brooks; the amphibian frogs are in his ponds; the reptilian period crawls in the grass about his feet. He finds William James's moral equivalent of war in fighting the insects of another period; and a long mammalian procession of creatures comes before him, as it did before Adam, to be named. Even the trees march out from Paradise and attend him on his way, along with the vision splendid. Who that was born in the country cannot say with Wordsworth:

> There was a time when meadow, grove and stream
> The earth and every common sight
> Did seem apparelled in celestial light
> The glory and the freshness of a dream?

I am sorry for the city man who has never had that experience. One who has had it is better off, even if it is not for him "now as it hath been of yore."

Among some lines I wrote long ago I found this soliloquy of a young man born in the country facing death in a drear hundred-chambered house of pain in a great city, when it was ploughing time out on the prairies:

> On such a day I ploughed the stubbled land
> That lay beyond the virgin field, unfenced,
> Where larks were singing on its flowered knolls
> And frogs made lonesome music in its swales,
> And killdeers mourned o'er some long loss
> Refusing to be comforted. . . .

The oat was springing in the green-fringed field
That soon would furnish pipes for summer's winds;
The solemn cranes went croaking overhead
Through cloud-made aisles their glad processional,
And I my Horace strapped upon the beam,
To read while resting at the furrow's end,
Was happiness and hope impersonate.
In that heav'n-circled amphitheatre
I strove alone, while all about stood those
Who'd come from out all time, from out all lands,
To see what I would do with life.

There is, too, the very practical side. Farm life is inherently the nourisher of individualism, in the sense that it tends to develop selfreliance, initiative, and independent judgment and action, along with neighborly respect and uncondescending charity. The greatest problem in our country that no longer has geographical frontiers is to keep in their vigor the sturdy qualities of the frontiersmen, the pioneers, and early settlers. It is life with its roots in the ground that has given us our leaders.

In his chapter on Demosthenes, Plutarch quotes someone as saying that "to a man's being happy it is in the first place requisite he should be born in some famous city." If that were true, then only about three percent of the population of America in the decade of the fifties had promise of happiness, for only about twelve percent then lived in cities and certainly not more than a half dozen of them could be reckoned as famous. It would be nearer the truth to say that except for what those born in the country or in towns unrenowned brought to now famous cities, we should have no famous cities, except possibly Boston and Philadelphia, which until recently have been selfperpetuating.

A vital human statistic (and that is what each one of us is in the census reports) finding its cradle in a census table in some unfamed spot of America seems to have had a better chance of coming into metropolitan or cosmic fame and so to a certain kind of happiness than the child born in a city that even Plutarch would have put among the most famous. I have taken fifty names of leading men in New York City in various fields and inquired as to their place of nativity and have found that all but five of them were born outside of this famous city.

Of the presidents of the United States, only one was born in a famous city, unless we include Cincinnati of the late fifties among those that may be so regarded. Cincinnati then had a population of only about a hundred thousand and was not aware that it then had in its midst an infant—a vital statistic that had not yet been counted in a United States census—one who was to have the unique fame of being both President of the United States and Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court and whose passing we lament. Theodore Roosevelt was born in New York City but he didn't stay long in his cradle. We have yet to learn the presidential potency of a man who was born in a famous city, nourished in an ordinary city home, educated in city streets, far from green pastures and brought up amid push-carts and trucks of commerce rather than in the furrows of the plough or in the trails of the forest. More than fifty percent of the children of the new generations will be born in cities or in the suburbs of cities. Theirs will be predominantly an urban civilization and will have to show whether it can flourish under the city-born, as did the first Greek democracies, which were cities.

But these and other inherencies of farm life are not likely to develop themselves or make their contribution to society except through the teacher—the trained, rural-minded teacher. I remember one such, whom I found on my journeys on foot among the one-room schools of New York. She refused to go to the city. I recall her asking one of the pupils to tell me how many varieties of trees there were in the neighborhood. The last time I saw her was at an exhibit at the state fair. But the exhibit that would have been of highest value to the state and of highest praise to her, would have been the character which the exhibits of flowers and fruits, etc., had made in her boys and girls. I would rather be a pupil again in the mountain school which Mr. Hoover has started than in the best city school.

Let me approach the close of this address, which I have brought from the city's thrilling maelstrom, with a tribute to such a teacher, whom I had in a little box of a schoolhouse out on the prairies more than a half-century ago. She brought in a flower from her garden one morning, an old-fashioned pink, and wrote its name upon the board. She said, "There is no one here that will remember it till tomorrow." But that word, "caryophyllaceous," is still in my memory and the pink will ever be her memorial. I would make it the national flower for the country-school teacher, for through her ministries the inherencies of farm life have the greatest chance of making their contributions to education, new or old, and to society which is ever new.

I end with a prayer to Demeter, the votive offering of a Greek farmer, adapted to the use of an Illinois farm-boy:

> These handfuls of corn from the furrows of a prairie field, Demeter, lover of farm children, I dedicate to thee, having reaped my harvest praying that I may carry back my sickle blunted from shearing of stalks.

FACT-FINDING AS A FOUNDATION FOR STATE LEADERSHIP—ABSTRACT

HENRY C. TAYLOR, DIRECTOR, VERMONT COMMISSION ON COUNTRY LIFE, BURLINGTON, VT.

The Vermont Commission on Country Life is a voluntary organization of Vermont citizens including most of the high officials of the state. Viewed from the standpoint of its objectives, it is a planning commission because all the work is done by or for committees of citizens looking to some phase of a program for the future development of the life of the state. Viewed from the standpoint of its scientific method it may be called a research organization because each committee is basing its conclusions upon carefully gathered facts which throw new light upon problems. In other words, it is a scientific planning commission. When it is brought to mind that 230 citizens have come together to plan for themselves rather than having plans drawn for them by experts, and when it is recognized that the major end product is not the written report but the state of mind of these 230 citizens who have participated in the work and their influence upon the thought and action of the other citizens of the state, I think you will agree with me that the Vermont Commission on Country Life is primarily an experiment in adult education.

The work of this commission differs from that of most other rural development or planning commissions in that it gives more attention to the life of the people. Some development commissioners appear to see the land first of all. The Vermont Commission sees first of all the people and seeks ways and means of improving their wellbeing. It is interest in the economic resources and their better utilization, but this interest is avowedly subordinate to its interest in the quality of the life of the people.

To provide a full understanding of the physical basis of life in Vermont, a reconnaissance soil survey of the state was commenced last June which it is hoped may be completed by this time next year. A relief model is being constructed, and charts are being made which show climatic conditions in the various parts of the state.

Recognizing that the land basis is only a potential factor and that the quality of the people determines the character of the civilization of a given region, particular attention is being given to the study of the population of Vermont. The quality of the residual elements of the native Yankee stock is being studied. The substitution of foreign race elements for the native stock is being studied from the standpoint of its effect upon the quality of the life of the Vermont town and upon the ideals which have made the name of the Green Mountain State respected and loved throughout the nation. This subject includes a study of the ways and means of caring for the handicapped people. The population studies include the Eugenics Survey which was in progress under the direction of Dr. Perkins for two years prior to the organization of the Vermont Commission. In fact, the comprehensive survey which is being conducted by the Vermont Commission grew out of the work of the Eugenics Survey. This doubtless explains why the human factor and the life of the people are receiving unusual emphasis in our undertaking.

The Committee on Agriculture of the Vermont Commission is working on a production program and a marketing program for Vermont farmers with a view to better conditions of work and better incomes. The work of this committee is carried on essentially as a part of the work of the State Agricultural College and the State Department of Agriculture and has the cooperation of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

The Committee on Forestry with the State Commissioner of Forestry as an active member is working on a forestry policy for the state. Attention is being given to the question of the extent to which national, state, and town forests should be developed. Especial attention is being given to the ways and means of encouraging good forestry practise on the part of owners of large areas of timber land held by private interests. The state policy with respect to the taxation of forest land is being carefully considered. The effect of tourists and summer boarders upon the life of farm homes and rural communities is being studied at firsthand. An investigator has visited more than five hundred rural homes accommodating tourists or summer boarders, and her reports give a fairly accurate picture of the extent of this business, and its influence upon the equipment of the house, upon the farming enterprises, upon the education of the family, and the general effect good or bad upon the life of the home and the community.

A committee of interested citizens has been organized to study the problems and develop plans for the promotion of the good old sports of hunting and fishing and at the same time develop ways and means of preserving wild life in its various forms.

In addition to these committees which are dealing with agriculture, forestry, and summer residence, a committee on land utilization composed of representatives of these three groups has been formed. The purpose of the Land Utilization Committee is to study conditions and formulate land policies relating to land regarding the use of which there is much uncertainty. It is believed that these surveys will prove valuable in formulating rational policies for the utilization of the land resources of the state in a manner which will best promote the wellbeing of the people.

The Rural-Urban Relations Committee is undertaking the task of studying the community life, both economic and social, of the various trade areas in the state and pointing out the mutual benefits which arise from the interrelation of urban and rural people and the means of developing more helpful relations particularly in the common use of libraries, churches, schools, recreational facilities, and the various public utilities.

The living standards of rural people are being studied with a view to developing methods of initiating improvements in home equipment, home environment, and in the community life which will bring the highest cultural influence into rural life. Some of the major conditions of a high standard of life are being considered by special committees on rural health, education, religion, citizenship, and ideals, but there remains a question of the home life and particularly the recreational aspects of community life to which this committee is giving especial attention.

The Committee on Rural Health is studying the extent to which physicians, nurses, and hospital facilities are accessible to the people of rural Vermont. The physicians are found largely in sixteen cities and larger villages. Are these physicians able to meet the needs of rural people? Are rural towns in a position to support resident physicians? If not, how can the rural health problem be solved? What is the place of the trained nurse in meeting the health needs of rural people? What is the place of hospitals or nursing centers in serving rural people? Obviously, these questions should not be answered without careful study.

The outstanding factor in determining the standards of culture and efficiency of rural people is education. A committee on Educational Facilities for Rural People is studying the school system of Vermont from the rural schools to the universities, not forgetting the libraries and the clubs. The town unit of organization in Vermont has resulted in a large number of small libraries. The serious problem is, how to bring the efficiency of the modern librarian to these many libraries with their untrained, partime librarians. A study is being made of the various agencies which contribute to adult education in other fields with especial reference to cultural subjects. The Grange, community clubs, music clubs, literary and discussion groups fostered by various agencies are being appraised and studied with a view to enhancing their effectiveness in rural life.

In order to deal with these varied topics the educational committee has organized a number of subcommittees each of which is making a study of some one phase of the educational work of the state. In all, seven subcommittees have been organized, which are as follows:

1. Elementary education in rural schools
2. The service of secondary schools
3. College and normal school facilities
4. Adult education
5. Library facilities
6. Social agencies affecting education
7. Financing education.

All told there are forty-five people working on these committees, and several experts have been engaged to gather facts to supplement the data already available as a basis for committee action.

Religion as an agency in rural civilization is recognized as having played an invaluable role. The Committee on Religious Forces is attempting to evaluate the work of the rural church of today and if possible find some means of restoring it to its former importance. While the physicians have moved out of the rural districts, the minister has remained. The rural minister is ill paid and yet the rural people cannot afford to pay more. Is the larger parish the solution? Is some different organization with local Sunday schools and central churches for preaching a better suggestion?

The relation of the state to the people is a matter of great importance. Our civic rights have been secured only after centuries of struggle for liberty and equality as citizens. Now that these rights have been secured without effort on the part of the present generation there is a tendency to take citizenship lightly. Many rural people fail to exercise their privileges as citizens, others shirk their obligations. The Committee on Citizenship of the Vermont Commission has made a careful canvass of two Vermont townships for the purpose of ascertaining the conditions which lead to neglect of civic activities and the conditions conducive to good citizenship.

While the work of the Commission was being planned and after the foregoing topics had been outlined, there was a feeling on the part of some that there yet remained an intangible something which was needed to complete the undertaking. It had been noted that while "Vermont Specials" are run to advertise marble and granite, slate and talc, machinery and cloth, sugar and syrup, lumber and wood novelties, the cow and her product, and the scenic attractions of mountains and lakes, that in fact no Vermonter is at his very best when his thoughts are on this plane. It is when the Vermonter speaks of the great characters in Vermont history and the contribution of Vermont to the life of the nation that he rises to his full stature and shows that exultation which enters not into the souls of men who deal only in material things. Thus it has transpired that a committee has been organized to study Vermont traditions and ideals and to bring to the Commission that undefined spiritual reality which has been so effective in the life of the state and the nation, in order that it may have a definite part in shaping the plans for the years to come.

The committees of the Vermont Commission are at work. The project was organized on a three-year basis beginning July 1, 1928. It is expected that the report will be completed by June, 1931. The major product, however, will not be the report but the attitude of mind of the 230 participants on the various questions which relate to rural progress in Vermont. The final reports of the committees will constitute a program, many-sided and for the long future, for rural Vermont. Even as the period of fact-gathering goes on, the beginnings of such a program are gradually taking form, engaging the imaginations of the people and uniting them in common effort. The program will not wait for or be dependent upon the publication of a report or the passage of new laws by the legislature, important as governmental enactments will surely be. It will be a program made by the people, for the people, and an integral part of the life of the state.

LEADERSHIP IN IMPROVING EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR COUNTRY CHILDREN—THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

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The conditions that have affected all secondary education in the past decade have presented peculiarly difficult responsibilities to the small secondary school. In 1918, the percent of secondary school enrolment from the total population of high-school age (15-18 years) was twenty-eight, and by 1928 it had increased to fifty-five percent. The former homogeneity of pupil personnel in secondary schools has disappeared. Compulsory education and the democratic expansion of opportunity for secondary education has resulted in tremendous growth in enrolment and great diversity in ability of pupils. These changes make former procedures obsolete and call for a scientific approach to new problems.

The state's first responsibility to the rural high school is to carry on careful factual studies of educational problems, to direct and encourage carefully planned and controled experimentation, to determine new types of subject-matter organization, new instructional methods, new adaptations of curriculum to rural needs, new adaptations to the gifted, the slow, the average pupils, and new provision for guidance placement and followup both for those who enter occupations after completion of the high-school course and that fifty to sixty percent who must leave high school before graduation. In California, studies of articulation of elementary and secondary education, rural high-school curriculum, the rural high-school teacher, and the rural high-school principalship have revealed the basic data for a scientific state program. These studies are made available in printed reports to those concerned with the problems.

The rural high school is effective or ineffective almost directly in relation to its supervisory officer's professional ability. The second great function of the state is to stimulate improved professional activity on the part of principals. Instruction will improve and the institution will serve youth and the community in direct proportion to the ability of the principal to quicken the teaching personnel to professional activity through scientific supervision and inspirational leadership.

Through statewide and regional conferences of high-school principals the state is sponsoring a program of group-thinking resulting in cooperative leadership. This utilization of collective thinking through the conference procedure stimulates every member of the group to well-directed consideration of problems and keeps every member effectively participating in the discussion, thereby arriving at conclusions in terms of which appropriate action may be planned. High-school principals from 164 rural high schools have contributed valuable suggestions as to steps advisable for the state to take in the improvement of rural high schools.

1. Larger unit of school administration—unionization of elementary and secondary education under a single administration	70
2. Increase state aid for rural high schools	31
3. Supervision from state office	20
4. Independence from university domination	12
5. Provide for establishment of junior high schools	9

These results of cooperative planning make available to the state the conclusions resulting from experience and in addition guarantee a group alert and informed concerning progressive policies.

The rural high school with its academic traditions and its college preparatory background is not preparing its students to fill the occupational opportunities offered by presentday industrial conditions.

While only a small percent can reasonably expect to find employment in the professional pursuits, the programs of many rural high schools are constructed entirely in the interests of this group. Occupational maladjustment inevitably follows the failure of the large percent to find employment for which they have prepared.

One gratifying responsibility of a state department of education is the discovery of effective programs of rural secondary education and the direction of attention of other institutions to these superior accomplishments. In California, the median average daily attendance in secondary schools is 179, but more than one-fourth of the high schools have an average daily attendance of 82. The program, then, of a progressive high school having an enrolment of a hundred students, less than 10 percent of whom go to college, and a faculty of five is of interest to a large number of principals and teachers.

Criticism is frequently made of the quality of instruction in rural high schools because it is formal and abstract, poorly adapted to local needs, failing to utilize local educational resources, and providing little stimulation for the development in pupils of originality of thought or expression. Fall Brook High School illustrates an educational program rendering a maximum of service to a small rural community. The vitality of professional leadership with which its problems have been attacked is responsible for its achievement in spite of the usual obstacles confronting the small rural high school. Fall Brook High School is surrounded by an extensive botanical garden containing the citrus and sub-tropical fruits adapted to that locality. The grounds have been beautifully landscaped with suitable shrubbery to create a simple and natural background for happy community living.

The students have been responsible for creating this environment. Participation in meeting the problems inherent in the situation has been the agency for the development of character and group consciousness. Athletic fields, tennis courts, even a nine-hole golf course have been constructed by the students. Boys' and girls' shower and locker rooms were needed and were built under the direction of the shop instructor. Students' social occasions called for an out-door fireplace, tables, and benches. The construction of these constituted practical activities of the group.

The physical welfare of the pupils is assured through this accessible out-of-doors program. Not only athletics, but shop, science, and art activities utilize the playgrounds and gardens.

The curriculum emphasis is based upon the nature and needs of adolescence. The community's agricultural interests are the center around which the science is organized. The sources of study are life activities as well as books.

Every child finds his place in this modern school. Achievement need not be in terms of prowess in handling the academic subjects.

It is almost unnecessary to add that this school is in closest cooperation with the home—that the lives of the children are integrated because of the reciprocally cooperative efforts of the faculty and the parents.

The activities of the school are shared by the adults. Community meetings are held in the school auditorium. A dozen looms have been constructed in the shop and under the direction of the homemaking instructor, the interesting art of making handwoven fabrics is rapidly becoming a community enterprise.

The state department's opportunity for making rural secondary education more effective for youth and community development seems to come (1) through careful scientific research to establish the facts; (2) through stimulation of cooperative leadership in group conference procedures; (3) through attracting attention to situations in which progressive education is rendering efficient direction to rural boys and girls and to rural communities.

LEADERSHIP IN TEACHER TRAINING IN SERVICE—THE COUNTY INSTITUTE—ABSTRACT

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The old type, traditional teachers institute, in which teachers were assembled for several days and listened passively to addresses on various topics, disappeared in Minnesota about the year 1918. Since that time the work has been planned, directed, and financed by the state department of education.

In 1925 the Legislature passed a bill providing that a part of each week set aside for institute work in a county could be spent in visiting schools in cooperation with the county superintendent. Since that time three or four instructors have been employed for the full school year, approximately 5000 rural school teachers have been visited and helped in their schools, and each year approximately 8000 teachers have been met in assembly as a part of the institute work.

The purposes of the work are to:

1. Help individual teachers in their schools
2. Interpret the state curriculum to the rural teachers and aid them in adapting and using it effectively
3. Cooperate with county superintendents in planning and carrying out a county program of supervision
4. Carry out a state program for the general improvement of rural education in the state of Minnesota.

The administrative work involved is done by a member of the state department of education. Teachers and county superintendents participate in planning and carrying out the work. The state program is worked out in conference of the instructors and director, and in each session the time is divided between the state and county program. A regular schedule of dates is made in the state department so that county superintendents know well in advance when the instructor is to be in the county.

To avoid duplication each year's program is an outgrowth of what has been done before. Some research work is done each year to enable us to deal intelligently with our problems. The work is growing, county superintendents are enthusiastic and teachers appreciative. With about 8500 teachers in 87 counties, there is need for a larger staff of workers. We believe this is coming.

THE COUNTY INSTITUTE—ABSTRACT

JUSTIN WASHBURN, SUPERINTENDENT OF ROCK ISLAND COUNTY SCHOOLS, ROCK ISLAND, ILL.

The teachers institute should be planned to meet specific needs of the county educational program. With this in mind the Rock Island County Institute was planned for the purpose of improving the rural schools of the county. The teachers wanted to see in actual operation a school organized to take care of the individual needs of the pupils, carrying out a complete school program, and planned to meet the needs of the schools of the county. A demonstration school with twenty-seven pupils in all grades from one to eight, organized as a one-teacher school was planned as part of the institute program.

There were four periods in each half-day of the institute program; two of them were arranged for the teachers to observe the work carried on in the demonstration school, and the other two were arranged for discussion of the work and for planning the daily program of the school.

The problem set for the institute was: How can a one-teacher school in which all grades are represented be organized and taught so that every pupil will be interested in, and busy at profitable work sixty minutes out of every hour, willingly accepting the responsibility for planning and carrying out his own program in harmony with the ideals of the school, and so that the teacher is free to give constant attention to the individual needs of the pupils?

The plans worked out at the institute in answer to the above problem have been carried by the teachers into the schools of the county. The institute also stimulated the teachers to try to discover for themselves new ways of meeting the problem in their respective schools.

The result has been a great improvement in the rural school work of the county. Teachers, pupils, and parents are enthusiastic about the demonstration school.

PIONEERING IN NEW FIELDS—RADIO IN RURAL SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

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In the past few years there has been a great deal of discussion as to the possibility of using radio programs for instruction in elementary schools. England, Germany, Denmark, and other nations for several years have been using radio lessons in their schools.

America's entry into this new field has followed a long period of hesitancy and discussion. There are still reasons for hesitating to advocate the use of radio as a part of our educational system. However, since in addition to many local school broadcasts, there are also two national programs on the air—the Music Appreciation Hour, conducted by Walter Damrosch through the facilities of the National Broadcasting Company, and the American School of the Air, recently inaugurated through the Columbia Broadcasting System—and since schools rapidly are being equipped with radio sets, my interest today is not "shall we have educational radio programs," but "how shall we use them" in rural schools, particularly in one-room schools.

Early last summer, through funds provided by the Keith Fund, the Rural Education Department of Teachers College set up a research bureau to study the use of radios in rural schools, with special reference to their value in the one-room school. At the time of the organization of our research program, an outline of the plan and the desired outcomes for the year was formulated.

We decided to study ways of using the programs, rather than the problems involved in broadcasting. Naturally, the rural schools which agreed to cooperate with us in this study were not able to do much without advance knowledge of radio programs. This necessitated immediately an information service as a part of our bureau. Each week we have sent to these schools a listing of radio programs which might be utilized by them with our suggestions for correlating the programs with classroom work. A second type of service has been the passing on of suggestions and comments from the teachers as they develop interesting and successful technic for the use of the programs.

It is through the help of these wideawake teachers, who are cooperating with us, that we believe we are making a beginning in solving the problems involved in the use of radio receiving sets in rural schools. Of necessity, radio programs must be general and cannot fit the curriculum of any particular school. To date, the wisest course has appeared to be for the schools to use only those programs which definitely contribute to the school curriculum, even though many worthwhile radio offerings may be overlooked. However, the same is true of the use of newspapers, magazines, or libraries, as well as of available experiences in the local environment, and the same procedure is wise in each case.

By their very nature, radio programs call for passive listeners, while the ideal emphasizes the values of activity. If radio is to prove an educational agency in harmony with the modern philosophy of education, the development of appropriate technics is highly important. The teachers cooperating with us realize this and they have worked to build up technics for pupil participation.

Many of the teachers who have been studying this problem have found the radio a means of developing individual contributions to group interests.

They have assigned a program to one child for him to report to the rest of the class. In a school in New Jersey, the pupils take turns listening to ten minutes of news notes broadcast through their local station every morning.

Sometimes only one grade listens to a program which refers to its subject-matter. Usually this is done without the supervision of the teacher while he continues his work with other grades. This is using the radio as a library book and gives promise of developing into an important method. Every teacher with whom I have talked and from whom I have heard on the subject of current news, has told me that school children get far more from radio versions of news than they do from newspapers and that they are very likely to have their interest initiated through the radio and then follow it up with newspaper reading. In one school where the children keep notebooks of important news items clipped from papers, some of the children keep their notebooks in the form of "Radio News of Today," or "News I Hear Over the Radio." Instead of pasting in clippings, they write their version of the news as they got it from the radio, either at home or during a class period.

In spite of apparent difficulties, which fortunately can be partly overcome, radio offers to rural schools advantages which such schools, particularly of the one-room type, could not gain through any other medium. Considered as a source of educational materials, to be selectively used, five such outstanding advantages may be suggested. In the first place, it offers material which the average school could not get through any other source—such material as current happenings, orchestral music, dramatizations of standard works of literature, and the broadcasting of leading authorities in various fields.

Another advantage the radio offers the one-room school, is the setting of standards of speech, of pronunciation, of dramatization, and of selection of material. Perhaps not all standards set by radio are good, but on the whole they are better than the standards one-room schools already have. This is particularly true of standards of speech and diction.

The third value of radio is perhaps the most important to a one-room school. Radio serves as a means of carrying over interests from the local environment to national and international interests. If from studying the geography of their locality, rural school pupils go to the study of the geography of other countries, radio gives them a personal association with that country. It makes it real to them, rather than just a spot of red or yellow on a map.

The fourth advantage of radio is suggested by Dr. Dewey's philosophy of "increasing the variety and intensity of interests within the group and between groups." Radio can and does serve to increase interests.

The fifth advantage of radio lies in the varied points of view it gives. The average child goes through school hearing only the points of view of his teacher, the textbook, and his parents. Usually these viewpoints agree.

In this respect, radio is comparable to reference books. Pupils should be taught that not everything on the radio necessarily is true, just as they are taught that not everything in books is true. They must learn that statements made by a speaker or a writer frequently represent individual interpretations even though their realization of differences in opinion does not make the truth any clearer. At least they can learn to withhold judgment.

I do not believe all radio programs on the air during the daytime are applicable to a schoolroom situation any more than I believe that all books and magazines are worthwhile. A large amount of useful radio material can be found by a clever teacher, and more will be provided as there is general demand for it.

Most of the present daytime programs are intended for housewives and shutins. As the broadcasting companies become aware of the permanency of the school audience—a potential audience of twenty-seven million children—they will give us the programs we want for our schools. We can get what we want, but we first want to be sure that we want it; and that we know how to use it when we get it.

If radio is to continue as a tool of education, I believe it will take its place as a means of instruction along with teachers, printed materials, and visual aids. It already has opened new fields for the blind, the deaf and partially deaf, and the crippled. It is probable that educational groups will interest themselves in developing its educational possibilities for these handicapped children. But in developing the use of radio, it is well to give every consideration to those children who attend rural schools that their handicaps, too, may be overcome.

It is probable that within a few years, four or five national, and numerous local school programs, will be available to every school. The problems then will be the problems we are trying to face now: Which of these programs can we use successfully? How can we use them to the best advantage of the rural child? What technics for their use must we develop?

By solving these and other problems now, we can lay a firm foundation for the future schools of the air, and prove ourselves wise in our use of the educational tools contributed by this age of science.

INDUSTRIALIZATION AND ITS INFLUENCE IN THE ORGANIZATION OF RURAL TEACHER TRAINING IN NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES—ABSTRACT

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Fifteen states, containing about half the entire population of the United States, have more than half their inhabitants living in cities of over 2500 population and more people engaged in industry than in agriculture. This change from an agricultural to an industral society has caused, or at least been accompanied by some important changes in the social and racial background of normal school students and in the type of position to which graduates of teacher-training institutions go after graduation.

In the agricultural states about three-fourths of the students in teachers colleges are from the farms and villages and have attended rural schools and ninety-five percent or more are children of American-born parents. In the highly industrialized states less than ten percent of the students come from farms. From seventy-five to ninety percent are children of factory laborers and almost half of them are children of foreign-born parents.

Yet in the industrialized states an ever increasing proportion of normal school graduates do their first teaching in rural schools. About half of them now spend two years or more in the open country or villages. Unless they have special training they are poorly prepared for that work.

It is recommended that all students in the teacher-training institutions of the industrialized states be required to take courses in rural life and education and that if there is any probability that they will teach in rural schools that they do part of their practise teaching in a one-room school.

RURAL TEACHER TRAINING IN THE INDUSTRIALIZED EAST—A CONCRETE EXAMPLE—ABSTRACT

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Connecticut is committed to the policy that the training of rural teachers involves all the training that is necessary for urban teachers and certain additional training as well.

This additional training is believed to involve three objectives: first, bringing about in the students an understanding of the rural environment and of the organization of the one-teacher school; second, the development of an interest in and a sympathetic attitude toward rural conditions; and, third, some skill in meeting the managerial situation involved in teaching a school of many grades.

It is my purpose to describe to you the way in which one of the normal schools at Danbury is striving to accomplish these objectives. Because of the fact that Connecticut is an industrial state, rural work in the normal school is very differently organized than it is at present in the agricultural west or in the midwest. In Connecticut and in other states in the industrial area there is no question as to whether it would be best to allow future rural teachers to choose a highly differentiated course. Our students do not come from rural communities. Their interests are not rural, and if they were compeled to choose between the rural field and the urban field at the time they enter normal school, the number selecting rural training would be negligible.

In order to meet this situation and to provide trained teachers for the several hundred one-teacher schools which still exist in Connecticut, rural training is required of every student who enrols in the normal school. A survey of the student body of the normal school at Danbury reveals the fact that not more than twenty percent have attended a rural school as long as one year, and that a great many know nothing whatever about a one-teacher school and had never even seen the inside of one before entering normal school. It is also estimated that for the past few years about forty percent of the graduating classes have gone into one-room schools to do their first teaching. When we consider the fact that the great majority want positions in city schools if they can be obtained and that there is no way of predicting until near the end of the senior year which of the graduating class will teach in rural schools and which in urban schools, the need for requiring all students to be prepared to meet the rural situation is evident.

The entire student body is divided into two groups, one specializing in primary grade work and one in intermediate grade work. As a part of their regular course all members of both groups are required to take the work necessary to prepare them for rural teaching. This training consists of two required pieces of work—a course in rural education and a course in rural practise teaching. An additional opportunity, membership in the rural club, is taken advantage of by those students who are especially interested in rural affairs, but this, of course, is not required.

While recognizing fully the advantages in administering rural teacher training in institutions which have a distinct group of students preparing for the rural field, I should like to summarize the advantages of the other organization typified by the work done in the school at Danbury.

First, every student graduating from the normal school is trained to meet the rural situation. This avoids an unfortunate situation which often arises in communities where a distinct group is trained for rural service and another group is trained for urban schools. It often happens in such communities that when a city-trained graduate fails to secure the kind of position for which he is trained, he is employed by some country schoolboard with the high hope that they are to have a good teacher because he has had two years of training in a normal school and is a graduate of the school, only to find to their sorrow and his that he knows nothing about the organization of the one-teacher school and that he is prepared for upper grade teaching only, while their school is composed largely of primary children; or that he is prepared for primary work while their school has few or no lower grade children and is composed largely of seventh and eighth-grade pupils.

A second advantage in the way the Connecticut plan functions is the broadened outlook of all members of the student body—both those who eventually teach rural schools and those who eventually teach in city grades. Rural teachers have the broadened outlook which develops from coming in contact with all members of the normal school staff, and urban teachers gain a better understanding of rural problems about which they are often woefully ignorant and gain a sympathetic attitude toward these same problems which ordinarily they so greatly lack.

The third advantage is a high degree of interest in rural schools that exists on the part of the faculty as a whole because every student in their classes is a possible future rural teacher and the needs of rural teachers are constantly brought to their attention.

A CONCRETE EXAMPLE OF RURAL TEACHER PREPARATION IN THE AGRICULTURAL MIDWEST—ABSTRACT

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In order to understand what any institution is trying to do, it is quite essential to understand the field for which it is training. Minnesota has six colleges which are administered by one teachers college board. Yet each school is allowed to develop the needs of its particular field.

The state still has 6741 one-teacher schools and in the neighborhood of 500 two-teacher or three-teacher schools. Except for St. Louis County, Lake County, and a few large areas in some of the other northern counties, the state is organized on the small district basis. Minnesota has never taken the stand that consolidation should be pushed at the expense of children still attending the one-teacher schools. Hence while there has been a healthy and quite regular growth in consolidation, we still have need to train for the one-teacher as well as for the larger type of rural schools.

In recent years some rather significant legislation has had a marked effect on the demand for better trained teachers. The legislature of 1923 enacted a law which reads in part:

> For stimulating progress and achievement in ungraded elementary schools, the State Board of Education shall adopt standards for a superior ungraded school. Such standards shall be based upon the length of the school term, qualification of teachers, regular school attendance, and a curriculum adapted to presentday needs, including health work. School districts meeting these standards shall receive in addition to all other state aid, not to exceed one hundred twenty-five dollars ($125) for each such school maintained.

From a bulletin on standards issued by the State Department of Education we get the following: "Superior ungraded schools are accredited, and the work completed in them is given the same recognition as that done in the elementary graded schools." A very high standard has been set up by the State Board of Education for these superior schools.

Any teacher who teaches in superior ungraded schools must be a graduate of at least a two-year teachers college course. "Other ungraded elementary schools which meet the requirements for superior ungraded elementary schools under the heads of organization, records, equipment, pupils, teachers, curriculum, and administration may be placed on the accredited ungraded school list." That is, they may have an old building and yet be on the accredited list. This law and these rulings of the State Board of Education are having a marked effect in increasing the demand for better trained teachers.

While there are still many one-teacher schools in the state, between three and four hundred of these demand the same length of term, good equipment, and teachers as welltrained as those of the graded schools. The call for these teachers is coming to the teachers colleges of the state, and they must supply this increasing demand, for our high-school training departments furnish only one year of training beyond the four-year high-school course.

Much of the success of training for the rural teacher field depends upon the spirit which prevails in a teacher-training institution. First, the president must have vision and an intelligent understanding of the field, coupled with an interest equal to that which he has in any other field for which his school prepares teachers. Second, it is quite essential that there is a proper understanding of the problem by the different groups of instructors in both the college and training school. All members of the faculty should be conversant with the work that is being done in rural education in order that there may be intelligent cooperation.

All members of our faculty, whether they realize it or not, are regarded as members of the rural department staff by those of us who are set aside to attend to the rural interests. The president, head of the department of education, director of rural training, and head supervisor are really the directing committee of all of the rural training undertakings. Each has his responsibilities but is always in touch with the entire procedure.

All students who enter the rural teaching group are selected on the basis of previous scholarship records, intelligence, and achievement tests. They are not segregated in their college work from other groups except in the differentiating courses. These include a methods course preparatory to field work, a course in rural sociology, management, and practise teaching. The last two are given in the field.

Those students who finish one year only receive from the state an elementary school limited certificate. In this course we offer six weeks of observation and practise teaching. For those who finish the two-year course for the two-year standard certificate we provide twelve weeks of observation and practise in the affiliated schools.

The student is inducted into teaching by gradual steps. First, the subjects which he is to teach are assigned about ten days before leaving the campus for the practise teaching. He is set to work collecting materials and starting large unit plans for the subjects he is to teach. During the first days he observes classes and works to finish his plans. He then takes over classes in which the simple drill types of lessons prevail, adding to the teaching load gradually until he can undertake to manage the entire group and teach a full daily schedule.

In addition to the routine work of the day, time is devoted to professional reading. A professional library is provided in each school. Units of reading concerning the major problems in management and organization are laid out to guide the reading. Daily conferences are held after school with the supervising teacher in charge, and weekly discussion groups are held with the head supervisor on the occasion of his visits. These conferences include the discussions of both teaching and management technics. The students live in the country during the entire period of their student teaching, participate in community activities, and assume responsibilities in community programs and other community projects.

The placement of rural teachers trained in a teachers college in states where some are also trained in high-school training departments seems traditionally to have presented some difficulties. There are probably two outstanding reasons for this condition. The first of these is that until quite recently few teachers colleges considered the job of training rural teachers as seriously as the high-school departments did, and hence probably did not always produce the best trained teachers. That objection ought no longer obtain where the teachers college has the proper facilities for the work. The second reason is that the county or district superintendent had closer contacts with the high-school trainees while they were in school and was thus better able to help them in the field.

We are trying to overcome this obstacle by holding rural school conferences at stated intervals. At these conferences the county superintendents meet at the college for a two-day session. Demonstration lessons are presented by our supervising teachers, opportunity is given for the county superintendents to see student teachers at work. Discussions are held after the demonstrations. The college learns from the visitors ways in which the training of their teachers should be improved. Exhibits showing pupil achievement are held at each school, and every possible effort is made to bring about a mutually helpful attitude between the college and those whom we serve.

TEACHER SURPLUS AND THE INCREASING RESPONSIBILITY OF STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES FOR THE PREPARATION OF RURAL TEACHERS—ABSTRACT

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The importance of securing and retaining adequately prepared and capable young men and women to teach in the rural schools of the United States is too obvious to need elaboration. Our apparent inability to meet this need is equally obvious. Rural schools neither get nor retain such teachers except in relatively small numbers in proportion to their needs.

Not only have low salaries, uncertain tenure, isolation, poor living conditions, and the like, conspired to this end, but the condition is augmented by the fact that rural schools are the accepted proving ground for inexperienced teachers. Cities have set up higher protective standards. City superintendents, demanding not only training but successful experience of entering teachers, have scanned the neighboring rural teaching staffs as a most favorable place for selection. Good teachers, having served a satisfactory apprenticeship, move on to their accepted reward, a town or city position. Added to all these discouragements, there is apparent indifference on the part of rural communities to the need of professionally-trained teachers, especially for the small schools, and a mistaken idea that employment of undertrained, underpaid teachers is an economical procedure.

Yet what goes on in the classroom between the teacher and the child admittedly determines the quality of his education. All other provisions and activities, administration, supervision, and the like, merely set the stage for efficiency in the classroom and are successful to the extent and only to the extent that they secure it. Not only are these age-old truisms, but as a result of recent scientific studies of education teaching has taken on a new significance. More careful selection of persons to be trained, more intelligent elimination of the relatively unfit along the road to training in teacher-preparing institutions, lengthened periods of training and of apprenticeship under expert supervision are being demanded on an increasingly widening scale.

Fortunately this movement for better teaching has attained a measure of success in rural communities. This is not the time nor the place to do more than to refer to the efficacy of various administrative efforts which in many states—indeed to some degree in all of them—have resulted in more liberal support through state equalizing or stimulating funds or both; in many states in increased amounts of and better quality of supervision, in longer teacher tenure, better salaries, and other important achievements.

The war rendered effective service in the attainment of better salaries, but the apparent effort to avoid a teacher shortage at any cost, countrywide in extent but most acute in its after effects in rural schools, left us with lowered standards at a critical period. Post-war studies revealed the undoubted situation that many teaching positions were held by untrained, inexperienced persons whose compensation was not less but more than the quality of their services justified. As a result, rural school officials have in all too many instances been forced on the defensive to retain the ground gained in salaries.

Just as the war proved an opportunity, in spite of some drawbacks, to increase salaries (and salary increases were at least partially responsible for demanding higher qualifications and lengthening tenure in cities which availed themselves of the possibilities in the situation), so there are at present discernible certain unmistakable signs that this is an opportune time to work for increased interest in qualified teachers for rural schools, particularly in two directions, first, through enlarged and improved rural teacher-training programs on the part of standard teacher-training institutions, and second, through higher certification requirements. I shall discuss these in the order indicated.

Teacher-training institutions have not in the past assumed the same responsibility for training rural teachers as they have assumed for training urban teachers. This is true both as to quality, measured by numbers entering service in rural schools, and as to quality—measured by number and types of specialized courses designed particularly for the preparation of rural teachers. While the farm population contributes and has contributed to the support of higher institutions of learning, including teacher-training institutions, in the same proportion as the urban population and is, therefore, entitled to the same service, the farmer has not demanded or in many cases appreciated and availed himself of this service as his urban neighbor has. Consequently, when facilities for training rural teachers were established and courses offered on a par with other courses in the institution, maintenance was expensive and the service relatively unrecognized. Many institutions, even state institutions which are and should be primarily service institutions, were unable or unwilling to continue these courses solely or largely on a service basis. In the meantime urban communities were clamoring for more and more trained teachers, and this demand in many cases taxed the facilities of the institution to supply. Special courses for training rural teachers were expensive and unpatronized, and no great strain of conscience was involved in relegating the responsibility to an obscure place in the institution's program or avoiding it wholly. "Easy is the descent to Avernus."

Now a substantial change in the attitude of teacher-training institutions toward the training of rural teachers has set in. This is apparent from recent developments. Bunting and McGuffey showed in 1927, eighty-five percent of teacher-training institutions studied offering courses or maintaining departments varying in length and quality but designed for the special preparation of teachers for rural schools. Indications of possibilities for further extension are apparent. Among these indications I will mention three: First, there is a general upward trend of qualifications demanded by the public and by educators who are insistent in making teaching a profession which, like a chain, is no stronger than its weakest link. Easy entrance to teaching through the examination route and local certification is untenable if it is to be professionalized. Professional training to the extent of two years of higher grade is more and more accepted as a minimum essential.

Second, growth in enrolment in secondary and higher institutions, including teacher-training institutions, not only eliminates the necessity of drives for students but raises the question of how to eliminate and select among many applicants for admission to freshmen classes in higher institutions. Has it not also eliminated the situation of too few applicants for entrance to courses designed to prepare rural teachers and too few candidates among the graduates of teacher-preparing institutions for positions in rural communities? An instance in my own experience will serve to illustrate the changed situation in respect to the point at issue: Two years ago I happened to visit a state teachers college located in a large city. Its facilities had been devoted almost entirely to training city teachers, particularly for positions in the city in which the school is located. Owing to a marked surplus of teachers in that state, at least a hundred of those graduated the preceding year sought and obtained positions in country schools in the vicinity. Many of them were unable to meet satisfactorily the problems in the small rural schools in which they were placed, since their preservice training had been entirely intended for teaching in city positions. This fact had been called to the attention of the institution early in the year by the state supervisor. The result was that the institution has since established courses in rural education with a field worker among the graduates in service helping them to solve their problems and bringing back to the institution suggestions for strengthening the preservice courses.

In at least two states, on the basis of recent teacher supply and demand studies, selection of entering students and lengthening of courses in training institutions are being considered. In the State of Minnesota in which teachers are still trained in connection with secondary schools, entrance to the normal training departments has for some years been limited to students making standard grades in their high-school courses. These instances indicate that the time has arrived when there is no dearth of applicants for admission to teacher-training institutions.

Third, by no means least in importance, there is, I believe, a real, not an artificial surplus of teachers, which is now forcing teacher-preparing institutions, even those who have hitherto been reluctant to do so, to prepare teachers for service in rural schools. Any effort to measure a teacher surplus brings up the inevitable question of what is meant by "teacher" in this connection. Some school officials who lament a surplus of applicants for positions lament at the same time an undersupply of qualified teachers.

There is some evidence that the surplus of teachers may be augmented by the situation of more teachers in training than there are probable vacancies to be filled at the expiration of the training period. As an indication a resolution recently passed by the New England Association of School Superintendents appears significant. The resolution follows:

> Whereas there is a surplus of candidates for admission to the teaching profession, and whereas some of these prospective teachers are poorly fitted by nature or otherwise for this important occupation, be it resolved that normal schools and colleges of education, in cooperation with superintendents of schools, be urged to establish higher standards for admission and graduation, with special reference to the mental qualifications and teaching ability of students who intend to enter the teaching profession.

In 1925-26 there were actually employed during the year in public and private schools approximately 890,000 teachers. There were enroled in regular sessions of training schools 304,000, or a total of 1,194,000 persons employed in teaching or preparing to teach, probably representing the number who were or could be certified for teaching by the end of the year.

(This conclusion seems justifiable in view of the fact that at that time only two states required as a minimum for certification two full years beyond high-school graduation.) The same year there were 789,500 teaching positions in public and private schools. The difference between the number of teachers calculated as above and the number of teaching positions is 405,500—enough to supply a turnover of fifty-one and a half percent, provided that all those in training completed the course.

In order to check up as effectively as possible on the question of teacher surplus at the present time, an inquiry was sent during the month to twenty-one representative states distributed in such a way as to represent the country as a whole, the rural population, and the different degrees of progress as to minimum certification requirements. It was recognized that any inquiry concerning teacher supply and demand must set up some definition of the teacher. The question was, therefore, worded as follows: "Please describe the situation in your state as to teacher surplus or shortage in terms of the availability of legally certificated applicants for positions as elementary school teachers as of September, 1929."

Fifteen of the twenty-one states report a surplus of teachers; three (Arkansas, New York, and Michigan) that the supply is well balanced, neither surplus nor shortage; three (Delaware, Minnesota, and Missouri) did not answer the question. One of the three not answering the question reported in the summer of 1929 a large surplus of teachers.

Since the study was concerned not only with teacher surplus, but also with the responsibility of teacher-training institutions for the teaching situation, a few questions concerned this phase of the subject. Twelve states reported that facilities for training teachers in sufficient numbers to satisfy the demand were available. Two reported that increased facilities were necessary. Four did not express an opinion on the subject. Two of the states reporting are now considering the establishment of three-year courses as the minimum in teacher-training institutions, and corresponding minimum requirement for teaching certificates. Statements from both these states show careful study of supply and demand, so that it seems safe to conclude that these increased requirements are made with the assurance that no shortage is probable.

Conditions as set forth in replies from these 21 states were examined also with the idea of ascertaining what relationship, if any, might exist between higher standards and teacher shortage. Of the 14 states reporting a surplus, four require two years' professional training above high school as the minimum prerequisite for certification; three, one year; two, 12 semester hours; one, six weeks; one, high-school graduation only; and five no fixed amount of academic training above high-school graduation or even high-school graduation. States setting up the higher standards report about the same percent of surplus—or adjustment of supply—as those with no professional training requirements. This implication is borne out by replies of those reporting to the questionnaire, "What are the obstacles to further increasing standards?" Of the nine states reporting which require one or two years above high school as a minimum, two reply that there are no obstacles; standards will be raised. One states that further increases (in this particular state the present minimum is two years beyond high school) might involve a shortage in rural communities. Other obstacles from these states are as follows: Too many rural district boards do not feel the need of further increase and there are too many county normal schools, one; insufficient facilities in normal schools, one; one fails to answer, and the ninth states that inability to secure increased salaries seems to be an insurmountable obstacle at present. Among the obstacles to increased standards most commonly cited by the whole group of states are: Lack of appreciation on the part of the public; lack of appreciation on the part of schoolboards of the need of better trained teachers; too many certificating agencies; teachers and politicians object; inability to secure qualified teachers (this reply came from two states reporting surpluses) ; legislation hard to get. Apparently fear of a teacher shortage is not an obstacle to increasing the qualifications, or if it is, there is no evidence in the reports from these twenty-one states. It is interesting also that all states but one (even those whose present minimum is two years above high-school graduation) believe that the standards should be raised. Most of them expect to be able to raise standards in the near future.

The second opportunity which I see in the present situation, correlative to the first, is that of improving the teaching staff through continuation and expansion of present progress in setting up prerequisites for the lowest grade of certificate issued. Progress in this direction presupposes centralization of certification authority in state education officials. The importance of prerequisites for the lowest grade of certificate issued should not be overlooked by those interested in raising the standard of rural teachers. While the effects of high qualifications for higher grades of certificates may eventually permeate throughout the whole system, there is, as experience too well teaches, the possibility of continuing the practise of using rural schools as a dumping ground for the less well qualified unable to attain higher certification. Experience shows also that there is grave danger of the unfit displacing the fit.

In order to check up on the belief that states in which the functions concerned with teacher-training and certification should be coordinated, the questionnaire form included an inquiry, the answers to which it was hoped would throw some light on this question. Poor wording of the question is responsible for the lack of expected results. Replies show, however, that states in which the functions are coordinated under one board appear to be finding the arrangement entirely satisfactory. There is also some evidence that supply and demand are receiving careful and scientific study in these states and are influencing intelligent action on both phases of the problem.

The question of securing adequately prepared teachers of understanding and ability for rural schools is *many-sided* and *immediate*. We will not soon find a complete solution. I have tried to point out two possible and, I believe, significant signs of hope, provided we can capitalize fully on the present situation.

IS PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION PROCEDURE PRACTICABLE IN THE SMALL RURAL SCHOOL?—ABSTRACT

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Before attempting any discussion of how procedure in the small rural school, meaning the one-teacher school, may be improved, it is necessary to review the forces responsible for its being laggard, the difficulties that lay in the way of a modernized program:

1. The arbitrary district organization with its board of control of three members chosen usually for reasons other than improvement in school procedure.
2. The financial limitations of the majority of such districts greatly increased in the agricultural regions during the past ten years.
3. The low salary schedule in consequence, attracting only the young inexperienced teacher fresh from high school, or armed with a county certificate, having neither professional preparation for this most complex exacting task in the teaching field nor concern other than in the immediate salary reward.
4. A "course of study," bulky, but not adapted to *this* teacher's needs.
5. Limitations of textbooks too often selected and adopted for low price rather than high quality.
6. Failure of various teacher-training institutions to interest students in this virgin field, and to offer such courses as will equip them for making intelligent use of the potential wealth of a rural district. There is no richer laboratory than the rural life within its boundaries.
7. The traditional grading system evolved from urban needs but wholly unsuited to the rural situation is an outstanding obstacle in the way of real creative teaching.

Keeping in mind these and other handicaps characteristic of these schools everywhere, I invite you to make an imaginary visit to such a school—the Porter rural school, three miles from Kirksville, the seat of the Northeast Missouri State Teachers College.

We will make a hasty survey of grounds, buildings, equipment, enrolment, and teacher. I will try to throw pictures of schoolroom procedure during the year 1929 and 1930 on your mental screen that will fairly demonstrate the atmosphere prevalent in that schoolroom, and leave it to your judgment whether the situation and procedure can be labeled "progressive" and is practicable in all such schools.

Here we are. You see the box car building built some 45 years ago, located in the middle of an acre of level ground adjoining the public road. Only a few years ago two dilapidated toilet buildings and a coal shed in the rear together with a living well near the door completed the plant. The schoolroom was as bare of essentials as the yard, having but one modern touch in that desolate room—a slate blackboard and it was out of the reach of the primary children.

Believing firmly that the school environment should make as close an approach as possible to a normal home environment that children may learn through life situations, I wish to say here that the teacher keenly aware of the school's needs for equipment that makes possible its best service in health protection of the children, and in promoting their intellectual and moral growth through purposeful activities will exert his resourcefulness and initiative to the limit in supplying equipment and materials. He will find much of this is in his district, and in doing so through pupil participation, through cooperation of individual patron and parent-teacher or farm club organization will arouse and give direction to a community consciousness absolutely essential to the highest service of the school.

Today as we walk through the small gate under the rose-covered arch, we notice the ornamental wire fence, the large gate on our left leading to the driveway encircling the building thus leaving the blue-grass yard smooth for play; the flag floating from the 30-foot steel staff on the right; shade trees, shrubbery, vines, flower beds placed so as to leave all possible space for the play-groups; home-made teeter-totters, giant stride, horizontal bars, sand pile in a sheltered corner show provisions for the varied play needs of the school; a barn that shelters eight horses, toilet buildings screened, doors and windows fly-screened, concrete walk and porch with shoe scraper and wire mat show concern in sanitation and health; and trees under whose shade children of today picnic or rest after vigorous exercise bear evidence of tree planting by the boys and girls of earlier years whose creative instincts found expression from the high motives of making their schoolyard a standard for other districts, and as one boy expressed it, "We want to make this place a paradise for the little children who will follow us." Incidentally they were doing the "requirements" in nature study and agriculture as well.

That the play apparatus and flagstaff are painted in harmony with the buildings is worthy of note, for the need from the standpoint of preservation and appearance was suggested by the members of the "A" group in a luncheon conversation early in September and was quickly followed by a chorus "Let us paint them." "But," said teacher, "how can you afford the time for your work is very heavy just now?" "We'll do it at recess and noon intermission. Please let us." So paint and brushes were secured. Two members of the school board took down the flagstaff sections for Marie and Porter who worked faithfully for several days until the two coats were applied and the ball ornament gilded. The other two teams, Marvel and Ina, and Paul and Verlie handled the other "jobs" just as efficiently.

The varied experiences connected with this work voluntarily substituted for play, watching the weather indications, protecting their admiring little friends from paint contacts, learning and practising the proper care of paint and brushes, estimating the cost of material and labor, these, together with the joy of achievement had values for those children not to be had in mere textbook routine and are suggestive of how situations can be utilized.

Now this bed of jonquils and daffodils so beautiful this spring recalls the counseling last October with the members of the "A" and "B" groups about the need of digging up the bed, remaking it for better draining, and replanting it. There followed much interest in flower catalogs, research in the various reference books, and great surprises on learning about the various members of the bulb family. A large dishpan full of left-over bulbs was divided equally among the families represented in the school for home planting.

Problems were constantly presenting themselves for solution. Their tulip bed on the south side of the yard, for example, was observed daily when buds began to form and then came a chorus of distress, for the rabbits, numerous in our section, showed a decided liking for those buds which explains the wire fence, useful but not ornamental.

During Arbor Day week, play was suspended in favor of yard work. Two lawn mowers were brought to the school by parents who were stirred by their children's reports and appeals. What followed was a moving picture of the energy, the initiative, and resourcefulness of children when allowed to work out problems of vital interest to them. The teacher learned much as he counseled here and there during the mowing, raking, and weed-pulling in which all of the children shared.

Two results might be noted: The schoolboard decided to do the unusual thing of adding a lawn mower to the equipment, and the work in the schoolroom was never better.

Knowing the relation of physical comfort and hygienic surroundings to school work, socalled, let us view the building and equipment from the standpoint of health protection and health education of the children.

As we pass through the narrow vestibule extending across the front of the main room, we see a stairway on the right, linoleum covered, as is the floor, a built-in cupboard extending from floor to ceiling on the left, a floor register, and individual coat hangers on hooks bearing children's names.

Good ventilation and light control are noted in the main room, the latter made possible, despite the six windows being opposite each other, by careful selection of wall paper and adjustable shades and the additional glass panels to the two doors in the rear.

There are also the oil floor, two thermometers, tables and chairs for the primary children, with portable cupboards nearby serving for the storage of their work materials; scissors, rulers, pencils, tablets, letter and word boxes, etc., a supply for each child, all labeled and cared for by monitors from their own groups. The lower part of the built-in cupboard in the rear of the room contains such general supplies as manila papers, oak tag, theme paper, and art materials, easily accessible to the children; while above, the bookcase with glass doors shows several encyclopedias of rural life, a half dozen copies of *Webster's Elementary Dictionary*, a secondary dictionary, and a liberal supply of supplementary and reference books for geography, history, and agriculture. The circulating library with books for every grade occupies a built-in cupboard in the opposite corner of the room.

A reading table, an eight-day clock, a telephone, a piano, a victrola, and good pictures on the walls give the room the home-like appearance we think so desirable. Stormy days are not dreaded here by either children or teacher for in that cupboard near the piano is stored in an orderly way a generous variety of play material for all ages represented. Dominoes, checkers, rook, flinch, authors, marbles, puzzles, soft balls, table croquet, blocks—these are handed out by the elected custodians and returned to them when the bell rings. We might pause to note the routine of that rainy day recess. Windows are opened; there is a brief vigorous exercise to the rhythm of piano or victrola; then rain garments are donned quickly, for toilet duties before play is a half-habit. Then follows the challenging, grouping, and locating for their chosen games, both main room and basement being at their disposal. Here is the teacher's golden opportunity for getting his cues for character training.

We will now descend to the basement room which extends through the length and breadth of the main room having concrete walls and floor built through community cooperation. There is a furnace and fuel room; here is a water system, a bubbler, a kitchen sink with a faucet and a hand pump easily managed by a twelve-year-old boy which insures a plentiful supply of water without exposure or loss of time; near by hang the individual towels, looking further we see a first aid cabinet, brooms, floor brush, dust pan, sanitary dust cloths, mops, keg of sweeping compound, bag of "rags" for various cleaning purposes, a step ladder, wash boiler, each having a place and in place. The croquet and baseball sets are tucked away in this nook and easily reached. In the opposite section of the room is the kitchen division. Here are the three-burner oil stove, teakettle, oven, buckets, pans, a cupboard, the lower part given over to cleaning materials, matches, ink supply, the large jar of plasteline, etc., and the upper part to the dishes. Convenient to these is the kitchen table, its drawer supplied with tea towels and dish cloths. Glancing further, we see the work bench, the portable kit of tools, the long swinging table easily removed when more floor space is needed, several gasoline lamps hanging in the extreme rear above a long narrow truck made especially for the care of the six dozen folding chairs. Those lamps are useful in the classroom on the dark days as well as at night gatherings. The slate blackboards in those two wall spaces complete the equipment for this all-round useful room.

The teacher, a product of the Porter School experiment of earlier years, with an excellent record was secured for the year 1929 and 1930, and will continue service there another year. My connection with the schools since 1925 has been that of adviser to the schoolboard as in former years and helping-teacher in the school.

Can this departure from traditional procedure be called progressive? Is it practicable in the small rural school? Shall there not be such official adjustments as will conserve the potential citizenship in these small schools while legislative effort is being made to bring about the better type of organization?

PROGRESSIVE PRACTISES IN WASHTENAW COUNTY, MICHIGAN—ABSTRACT

MRS. HELEN ANDERSON, RURAL SCHOOL TEACHER, ANN ARBOR, MICH.

No doubt you all recall more or less vividly experiences in schools of this type. Except for the few districts which have established the consolidated schools this remains the typical rural school.

It has been and still is a most difficult task for one teacher to efficiently teach an unlimited number of children in all the grades. In order to make teaching in the rural schools vital Washtenaw County has introduced several progressive measures in its schools.

Washtenaw County is located in southeastern Michigan. Within the county are two great educational centers—at Ann Arbor the University of Michigan and at Ypsilanti the Michigan State Normal College. Under the direction of the Rural Education Department of the Michigan State Normal College the first progressive measure was introduced. This was zone work. It had its origin when eight schools were organized into one zone. At present we have nine zones of 140 schools under the direction of three supervisors. These supervisors visit the teacher in his school and assist him with his problems. A zone meeting is held on one Saturday of each month. Each meeting is given over to work on and discussion of two subjects, one which was stressed the past month and one which is to be stressed the coming month. Occasionally a zone teacher will teach a lesson which the supervisor on his last visit to the school has seen and particularly liked. After definite plans have been made for work of the coming month the supervisor will teach a demonstration lesson in this subject. The children are always pleased to return for these Saturday demonstration lessons. These meetings are an inspiration to the teacher. It gives him the feeling that he is a part of a larger education unit. It also brings him in closer contact with his fellow workers and gives him the opportunity to exchange ideas with them. This we feel is the real value of zone work.

The second progressive measure introduced was 4H club work. Sewing, canning, cooking, and handicraft clubs are found in the leading schools. These clubs are under the direction of the county club leader who organizes the clubs in the various school districts. The work in the district is carried on by some person in the community under the direction of the county leader. That our clubs are successful is shown by the fact that the amount of the prizes won by the Washtenaw County schools last year was $1000.

Achievement day has come to be one day of the school year to which the children look forward. This is a school day when all the children of the county meet for recreation and awarding of honors for club work and other school work. During the morning the children play games under the direction of a trained leader. This is an important factor in the socialization of the rural child whose social contacts are more limited than those of the city child. The afternoon is given over to the awarding of honors for the best work exhibited.

Realizing that music is a necessary part of every child's education, it was introduced into our schools. At present we have one supervisor who gives one hour each week to each school. At the close of the year a program is prepared in which several children of each school participate.

The *Ypsilanti Daily Press* has given the rural schools the opportunity to report their news to the paper. Each school sends its news once a week. At the end of the month a banner is awarded to the school which has the best items. This banner is kept for a month. In addition to this there is a special feature, it may be a book report, health topic, or making a forestry poster or any item of general interest to the children. A special reward is offered for the best work. The school winning the prize may have the privilege of naming the prize they would like. Our schools have chosen such things as books, pictures, and Lincoln Logs. The object of this is to cultivate in the child the habit of reading the paper as well as an incentive for work along these lines.

The most outstanding measure introduced has been the *individualization of instruction*. For a long time educators have felt there was a great waste of time and effort in the teaching of the fundamental subjects.

The Winnetka system of individualized instruction provides for each child to proceed at his own rate and to receive assistance in accordance to his needs. The Winnetka reading material has proved to be well adapted to the rural school.

We have also found that the Winnetka system of teaching arithmetic is equally well adapted to the rural schools. Each child has his own work book covering a unit of work. When he feels that he is thoroughly familiar with the work he takes a practise test which he corrects himself. The test is diagnostic. If he fails to pass the test 100 percent he knows what his weak points are and on what page of the correction book he will find the help he needs.

After careful study and drill he takes another practise test. As soon as he is able to pass the practise test 100 percent he asks the teacher for a teacher test. The teacher corrects this himself. After he passes this 100 percent he is ready for another unit. The speed work is developed in the same way. This method of teaching arithmetic develops independence, trustworthiness, and selfappraisal.

Winnetka system of spelling has worked out very satisfactorily. At the beginning of the semester the teacher pronounces in a series of lessons the words for the semester. The teacher corrects the paper and checks the misspelled words in the child's book. This list becomes his spelling words for the semester. The children choose the partner with whom they would like to work. The partners pronounce the words to each other. Each child corrects his own paper. At the end of the week the teacher corrects the test paper to find how the children are progressing. At the end of the semester the teacher again pronounces the semester words and corrects the paper. No child leaves a list of words until he has learned to spell them. The words are very carefully selected to fit the child's vocabulary.

The modern educational goal is an integrated personality by development of powers in selfcontrol, selfdirection, selfappraisal, and cooperation. All of these can be developed by the system of individualized instruction where socialization plays a leading part.

The measures introduced in Washtenaw County are: Zone work, 4H club work, Achievement Day, music, journalism and individualized instruction. But whatever methods we use, teaching should have as its object the development of morals, trustworthiness, loyalty, spirit of cooperation, independence, and happiness.

A PROGRESSIVE SCHOOL USES ITS ENVIRONMENT—ABSTRACT

HOMER H. HOWARD, ROGERS CLARK BALLARD MEMORIAL SCHOOL, LOUISVILLE, KY.

The Rogers Clark Ballard Memorial School is located some eight miles east of Louisville, and draws its pupils from the simple, rural country which lies just beyond it, and from the estates of the wealthy which surround it. My business here is to show how Ballard School reached out to seize its special environmental opportunities, and how it put them to use in the daily life about the school. Plans are on foot for an even wider and fuller use of our particular Kentucky rural environment for the coming year. From our beginnings this first year, I hope you may gather a few practical doings which you can translate into your own school procedure, and glimpse ways of turning your school's individual environment into real experiences for the worthwhile development of your children.

Our first-grade program was a study of the farm. To all of these little people the externals and the happenings of farm life are familiar. The group contains a large proportion of children from farmer families, and those from the richer families are used to having farming carried on about their estates. A small, and then a large, model dairy, were visited in the vicinity, and all the processes of handling milk were studied at firsthand; butter was made in the classroom; experiments were made with various cereals grown in the vicinity. With a few simple tools the children converted boxes into farm buildings, furniture for the houses, and wagons, trucks, and the like for work on the farm and for transporting the farm products.

The second grade concerned itself with the village. The community has two villages from which many of the children come or through which they pass on their way to school. Trips were made to both of them to note the features common to both, as well as the differences. From very large packing cases, the children built a store, a bank, a postoffice, a school, a village house, a farm house, and a chicken coop. In this community, the familiar life of the village was relived on the level of the seven-year age. Some of the older boys helped wire the buildings for electric light, and installed a doorbell. When the good spring weather arrived, the constructions were moved out-of-doors. A roadway, a bridge, and a trolley track with a wooden trolley car were added. Flower seed, flowers, and shrubs came from home to ornament the village yards. In the fall, a new road had been built around the school building, and when the children were building their village road there was strong insistance upon all the details of proper road building being carried out. Ballard was particularly fortunate in having the genuine village atmosphere upon which to build. Good habits of work are easily established when the motive is strong enough. We found the life of the village a very powerful motive in the activities of these youngsters. We believe that making use of the environment is a sure stimulus to the child's curiosity in reaching out into the unknown.

For the third grade we planned a reliving of the age of the caveman. Here again Kentucky favored us. In many places in the state are the remains of a civilization antedating that of the redmen. Private families and museums have relics believed to belong to that period. In the southern part of the state is the cave region with the father of caves, Mammoth Cave. In the ridge along the Ohio River are numerous small caves and rockledge shelters in which the children are used to playing. An abandoned stone quarry at one side of the school grounds made an ideal place for the life of these little cave people. Nuts, acorns, grain for food are all plentiful in the vicinity. Shells from the nearby Ohio served as vessels and as the foundation for bodily adornment. The tough fibre from the cat tail was woven into mats and made into baskets. Pottery was made first from local clay and then from imported clay in order that it might be fired. Barter was the primitive man's business medium and in this are many connections for number work. With the departure of the sun and the coming of winter, there came a natural study of the seasons, and also a study of fire. The curator of the Speed Museum in Louisville came to talk to the little folks about prehistoric man and his ways of living. We believe that facts, however acquired, mean little if isolated, and we base a far-away-in-time program not only on an active reliving of experiences of peoples of the past, but also on a connection with the known, present environment of the child.

Our fourth grade proposed to deal with early pioneer life in Kentucky, and the program resolved itself, through the vitality of the children's interest, into a very active reliving of the experiences of the Boone family. Aside from the Kentucky history and geography involved, the class had the experience of redoing many of the pioneer processes—some of which still exist in the rural homes of the vicinity—and some which have their modern counterpart in the commercialized activities of nearby cities. With the help of the caretaker of a neighboring estate, the children gathered different kinds of berries, tree leaves, bark, and nuts with which they experimented in dyeing. They made dipped candles. In the school shop they developed crude pioneer furniture and tools. A visit to the restored fort at old Harrodsburg with its log cabins, stockade, and its pioneer furnishings of every sort brought the interest in this phase of the activity to fever heat. There was also a trip to a restored 135-year-old log cabin near the school. There was a study of wool which took the group to a farm to see how sheep are cared for, and a later trip to a worsted yarn mill in Louisville. The children shelled corn, ground it in pioneer as well as Indian fashion, and visited an old water mill which is still in operation. They did some simple cooking with the corn meal. There was also a flax study which involved planting flax, and the doing of all the flax processes with tools made by the children themselves in the shop, and later even to the making of it into thread and the weaving of cloth. There was some study of the germination of seeds and the difference in soils in their planting of both flax and corn. In the early part of the year the children built a lean-to and relived the experiences of the Boones in the trail through the wilderness by which they reached Kentucky.

The knowledge and experience of these children so filled them to overflowing that they composed a play about the Boones. They designed and painted the scenery and used for state properties many of the pioneer articles which they had made in the shop.

The work of the fifth grade shows a means of approach to the distant in time and place through the medium of the environment of the here and now. We live near the Ohio River so that boats are in the experience of our children. A large proportion of the early settlers in Kentucky had come there by way of the flat boat down the river from Pittsburgh. We elected to make a study of pioneer transportation, but we began with a survey of modern transportation. The new bridge from Louisville to Jeffersonville, Indiana, was just about ready for use. The newspapers were full of its importance as a factor in transportation and there was much tabletalk in the homes about it. By beginning with boats, and by constantly making use in our activities of what the children knew about boats, their information soon became a vital part of other types of experience. They not only spread their curiosity to other types of boats, but they began to inquire into related transportation facilities, trains, trucks, steamships, and, of course, aircraft. What followed from this environmental opening was quite logical —the presentday Ohio River boat became a good basic interest for a study of history and geography. Each child found out from what part of the east his ancestors had come, and where in Kentucky they had first settled. Then we made a map showing this information with probable travel routes indicated. Someone has said that a person is *trained* by another, but that he *educates* himself. The fifth grade program bears out the justice of that statement.

This past year we carried the pupils through the first year of high school. The work of the older grades rather duplicated that of the younger grades except that the handling of all the studies was longer, broader, and deeper. But the use of local environment was everywhere in evidence.

In all of the Ballard programs it is evident that while there is something in common going on in each class, there are also going on at the same time as many things in particular as there are children in the group, so that every individual has a chance to participate fully and personally in the activities. The children are not dominated by separate subjectmatters. We try to have them form good habits of firsthand research into the known in their own environment, to make use of what they find in discovering relationships in concrete matter. This knowledge of relationships should help establish relationships in abstract matters when they come to deal with them. We believe in their having actual, physical experience with the life of the world because they themselves are motor creatures. They get and retain what they get through their bodily perceptions. The more they absorb of their immediate environment, the fuller and more satisfying will be their excursions into the distant present and into the past.

A MORE INTEGRATED TYPE OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITY—ABSTRACT

ELSIE L. CLEVERDON, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CUYAHOGA COUNTY, OHIO

A closer integration of work in the grades becomes necessary if the child is to understand very early in his school experience, the importance to him of each subject taught. The work must be so presented that he realizes what contribution each subject is to make in his chance of living a full, useful life.

Under the old system of teaching, when each subject was made to stand out as an isolated whole, the boy put his effort into the subject which made direct appeal to his interests and neglected all others. He "worked" arithmetic and "studied" history, if he liked it, and came out of school with a factual knowledge which was easily forgotten. In most cases he was not language conscious at all, he glibly used double negatives, misplaced his adverbs and paid no attention whatever to the matter of pronouns. The activities of his school had never brought to his notice that the use of correct English, the careful selection of words, the pleasing modulation of the voice, correct posture, good health, cleanliness, and poise had anything to do with his ultimate success in life.

We have come to realize that in the life of the child at school, situations must be created which will make him conscious of the importance of the thing which he is doing. In order to do this, an appeal must be made to his interest and from that point of departure the other phases of the work must be so integrated that he unconsciously gets the thing which he may dislike in other situations. The teaching must be of such a nature that the child, from the very beginning, must take much of the responsibility. He must be guided, but not carried.

He must be taught to read "to find out" and where better can this be done than when he is delving for information to give to his classmates? After the period of teaching the mechanics of reading is past, there is little use in the day's work for the socalled reading recitation. It has its use as a means of practise in oral expression, voice modulation, posture, etc., and should not be entirely eliminated. On the other hand, could not all of this be accomplished if pupils were required to read to the class certain informational matter which they were expected to get for use in other subjects? The child should be introduced to a great field of information, and taught, as a definite part of the assignment, how to find what he wants to know and how to use it after it is found. Textbooks as such should be done away with to a great degree and placed in the realm of reference material.

Every schoolroom above the primary should have books of reference, various textbooks, magazines, and daily papers. Picture collections and scrapbooks should all be made by the pupils. However, picture collections are of little value if not properly indexed and some type of descriptive matter accompanying each picture.

There are various other types of material which are almost always availble if the board of education, superintendent, and teacher are alive on the job. Much of this material may be brought into the schoolroom as a result of making use of the natural instinct of the child to collect things. Magazines and books in the home may be brought for a temporary library if the pupils have been taught the proper care of books and other borrowed exhibits. In this particular phase of the work, a fine lesson in honesty, promptness in meeting obligations, proper care of possessions, and economy of the right type, may be driven home.

The question may arise, "What is to be done about the drill type of lesson? Where is there a place for technical grammar, geography, as such—form, size, motions of the earth, change of seasons?" Time must be taken for this and it must not be neglected but when it is taught the pupil must be shown, through his experience, that there is a use for it in his scheme of things, either as a means of preparing him to meet situations which may arise in his struggle for a livelihood, or, as an aid to a better understanding of things about him in order that he may experience a fuller, richer enjoyment of life.

If we are to teach the child the best way to live, he must, so far as possible, be given the power to think things through—to realize that an existing condition is a result of something which came before and that whatever is done now will have its influence upon what will be done in the future. One of the objectives of work planning on the part of the teacher is to so present the problem that the pupil must make a careful selection of facts. He must organize his material in a logical way and present it to the class and to the teacher acceptably. Out of this should grow a splendid experience in the use of words selected to express just the meaning wanted, practise in sentence structure, paragraphing, punctuation, spelling, writing, and neatness. Art should play a big part in the integration of work in the elementary grades. Pupils delight to illustrate what they have learned.

Home reading and a love for the finer things in literature should be a very definite care of the school. What better time could be found to introduce Whittier's "Snowbound" to the class then when studying the climatic conditions of New England and where could they get a better understanding of the severity of the New England winter? The children would delight to take the ride with Paul Revere and sing the Indian Lullaby with old Nokomis. Situations that are made alive are always interesting to children.

Lists of books for the help of children in their use of the library should be placed where they are available at all times. The child should be given nothing but books suited to his particular needs and interests and these should be carefully selected.

There should be a reading table in every schoolroom and pupils should always be free to use it. This may not meet the ideas of the neighborhood concerning discipline. It may look to the casual observer as if the organization were rather loose but to the initiated it is the evidence of the best kind of discipline, a condition in which the pupil goes about the work of the day independently and quietly, giving proper consideration to the rights of the rest of the class to be undisturbed. The troublesome boy soon realizes that in order to keep his place he must find his niche and fit himself into it.

This type of work makes it possible for every pupil to find something that he can do well and therefore helps to develop the "I can" spirit. It is not difficult to see how easily in this sort of program the matter of elementary science, geography, history, reading, civics and social conduct may be carried forward.

In arithmetic a great number of problems may be built up from the material covered in a given unit of work—problems concerning distance, time, land measurements, and values.

A unit may cover several weeks of work and out of it should grow projects of various types. For example, a study of the early migration of the people of the eastern colonies into the Ohio country opens up to the pupils a vast field of adventure and information. The early history of the Atlantic coastal plain is the early history of the United States. After a study of the eastern coastal colonies and an understanding of some of the difficulties because of surface irregularities, poor soil, etc., the question will arise, "Why did they not go into the rich country to the west?" The next problem question, "What geographical fact prevented these people from moving westward?" grows out of the former, and immediately the Appalachian Mountain system becomes more than a shadow on a map. It becomes real in the sense that it had much to do with what man was able or not able to do. An assignment of reading and map work covering the location, extent, and nature of this mountain barrier should be given. After the completion of this, the class is ready to delve into history and find out what qualities in the characters of our forefathers made it possible for the far-away lands to be settled. Some pupil in the class may have made the trip from Ohio to the Atlantic coast. He may tell how food and lodging were procured. The class may contrast this with the conditions existing in the time of George Rogers Clark and Daniel Boone, follow their routes of travel, find out what their difficulties were, use a modern road map and follow as nearly as possible the old trails from the east to the new west, discover what modern cities are located on or near these routes and the reason for their particular location.

Time is too short to go into the details of this work but it may be readily seen that a most interesting and instructive basis for studying the Northwest territory has been set up and the life histories of George Rogers Clark, (Mad) Anthony Wayne, and others of this type become real and full of interest and romance to the pupil.

The very nature of this work makes it evident that the teacher must be very much alive. He must plan carefully, read widely, and must know where to get materials for use of the class. His assignments must be definite and purposeful and he must be sympathetic with pupil difficulties. In other words, he must be a splendid leader and not a taskmaster.

INTEGRATION OF ART WORK WITH OTHER SCHOOL SUBJECTS—ABSTRACT

GLADYS STACKHOUSE, CHAIRMAN OF ART COMMITTEE, CUYAHOGA COUNTY, OHIO

Art should not be taught for art's sake. It should be taught as an integral part of other subjects, or for practical purposes because, first, art cannot be separated from life. When one sees a painting, he first asks himself the question, what is it about? Who are the people and what are they doing? When the informational background is understood then a growing appreciation of the quality of execution is felt. There is art in the clothing we wear, the food we eat, and the homes in which we live.

Art should be correlated for practical purposes, second, because it makes life fuller, richer, and happier. The quest of life is happiness which is produced by harmony and beauty. How much more can a person enjoy life who sees a beautiful color scheme in the meal which is served him with its yellow butter, green colored salad, and orange colored carrots! How much more poise one has when he knows he is correctly dressed for the occasion with a harmonious color scheme and becoming lines! There is pleasure in having the articles of furniture about us, objects of beauty which do not constantly ring an inharmonious note in our consciousness. "Art cannot be separated from life for it is life revealed," says Kirby C. Valentine. The art course should consider life needs and develop a knowledge of art principles which will function in life situations. For example, why teach the different kinds of color schemes, if it is truly teaching, when one uses only paper examples, and then at the same time break the rules of art in the same schoolroom by placing an intense blue crepe paper on all the flower pots which contain lovely delicate pink geraniums? Theory is only a means to an end and not an end in itself. Art if not correlated loses its fundamental basis. Art must be about something; therefore, let it be about the material found in the curriculum. We grant the fact that art correlation is not a new idea but practical methods and organization for teaching art principles through correlation are comparatively new and in demand.

Art may be taught through correlation in the following way: A conference period is planned by the supervisor with each teacher to outline the ensuing month's work. During this conference the following things must be considered. The subjectmatter to be covered must be determined. A list should be made of the facts to be clinched. This is something for which the administration should be thankful. Our courses of study are so arranged that the units need not be taken up in sequence; consequently, all the teachers in one grade are not on the same unit at the same time. This is one of the reasons why monthly outlines are out of the question.

The next topic is what type of art unit will serve best his purpose. For instance, suppose the teacher is using the western movement in social science. We then discuss whether this will be better illustrated by: Friezes and posters, notebooks, individual and group, construction problems (3 dimensional), mounted collections of informational material (both illustrative material from magazines and handmade drawings), individual sheets, charts, production of shows such as moving pictures, slides, and puppet shows. Now it is not always that this is a teacher decision and as the method grows the more often do we get the children's response asking to do a certain thing a certain way. That of course is ideal but my experience with a system of schools has been different from the many articles written in educational magazines, which always begin "The children in Miss Brown's room were interested in China and one day they asked their teacher if they might do so and so." I have found that the children as well as the teachers must be educated to the fact that things may be done and that we will help them carry out any project they initiate.

When the art unit and the subjectmatter have been decided upon, the media must then be discussed. It may be a paint problem using either water color, showcard color, alabastine wall paint, or colored inks. It may be a cut paper or tissue paper problem. It may be a chalk or crayon unit. Or it may be a construction project using clay, cardboard, beaver board, wood, or cloth. So far now we have decided the type of unit, the subject facts, and the medium. For example, we might have decided to make a cut paper frieze on "The things the wind does" in social science. Then we must decide which art essentials to stress. Our choice is one or more than one of the following five: design, color, representation, lettering, appreciation. It is needless to say that a very fine project is one which includes several or all of the five essentials. This is not always possible nor is it necessary, because if a unit is planned to stress figure drawing one time the next unit may allow the children to profit from their experience and draw figures undirected.

The supervisor can now see and list just which lessons must be taught to develop the unit. It is almost impossible to get further than this before the teacher will say "How do you teach this particular lesson?" Then my good friend the art course of study is an ever present friend in time of trouble. This course is only tentative but it helps a very great deal just the same. There can be found in it sample lessons which may be adapted to any grade. After the teacher has had time to absorb the expanse of the entire unit and decide which lesson from the month's plan is the most difficult, a request may be put in for the supervisor to teach that lesson. Then as the work progresses and the teacher finds the need of criticism or gets into difficulty and cannot produce the results hoped for then Help Day arrives, at which time the supervisor is on call to "throw out the life line for the sinking one."

Time does not permit pointing out the use of many art principles in this and other problems. We are not teaching art for art's sake. Stimulation of ideas, originality, clinching facts are more important and technic is a byproduct and comes gradually. It is most gratifying to watch the children improve from year to year when they are given principles rather than problems.

Values through integration of the art work are the following: The child profits, the subjectmatter is vitalized, the teacher profits, and the administration gains.

How does the child profit? There proves to be more group work in this method—individual problems diminish. Consequently, there is great value from the standpoint of the child by his giving his services to a group project. It requires personal selfdependence. The child realizes the sanctity of a promise. It increases his sense of responsibility of group welfare. It increases his sensitiveness to group opinion. It provides opportunity for fair play. Next, the child benefits as anyone does who actually completes a beautifully finished product. Also the child is enabled to more abundantly enjoy life. He has learned to see beauty in everything about him.

Of what value is correlation of art with the other school subjects? First, interest is aroused toward that subject for which the children are allowed to create a piece of art work. There is new interest on the part of the pupils who can more easily work with their hands. There is interest on the part of the pupils who care more for reading because they are stimulated to search for more subjectmatter as a foundation for the art product.

As a result of the interest created, proper attitudes have developed. Creation of proper attitudes toward school subjects is the one big aim of education. Last but not least a correlation value from the subject standpoint lies in the fact that since the children have worked with subject facts over and over again, those facts have become fixed.

How does the teacher benefit through correlating the art work? First, it simplifies the amount of the subjectmatter which he must stress and it vitalizes that which he does stress. The more things he can bring to bear upon an individual point the more apt are the pupils to retain that point.

How does the administration profit through correlation? Correlating the art work with the other subjects requires the teacher to have an organization of subjectmatter which he wishes to present. Many teachers teach piecemeal style and in the end are unable to say what big points they have developed. Art correlation has done a very great deal for subjectmatter organization on the part of the grade teacher. When he does not know what he is going to teach, I am unable to help him organize an art problem. When I go to a teacher for discussion day and he says "I haven't an idea in the world" I say, "Where are your courses of study?" It has become a habit now when they know I am coming to have them all out ready. Another thing that it does for the administration is to save time. How? The time for stimulation of ideas and planning is all within the period for the regular subject. The working out takes place in art time—the 75 or 90 minutes per week. Now that does not mean that it is wasting time of the regular subject when the planning and organization are taking place, because that is when the children are actually gaining in interest and subject facts which the teacher aims to clinch.

This course in art in Cuyahoga County has enabled the children to express themselves more adequately in terms of their real life experience.

A HEALTH PROGRAM IN A ONE-ROOM SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

JENNIE KAUFMAN, RURAL SCHOOL TEACHER, MUSKEGON, MICH.

The facts I am going to tell you about carrying on a health program have been gained by a three-year project sponsored by the Progress Club of Muskegon, Michigan. The Progress Club is an organized group of young business women. This club offered a silver trophy to the school that put on the best all-round health program throughout the school term. It was this plan that launched us into the health work. It was from this project that I gained my knowledge of what can be done in a one-room school.

All parts of the project must be interesting. Nothing worthwhile can be accomplished unless the child's interest is aroused. The simplest device presented in an interesting manner will arouse much more interest than the most elaborate device presented in an ordinary manner. Then the teacher must show much interest in the results, not alone of the group but of the individuals.

We should meet the needs of the group or locality we are working in. Perhaps the supply of drinking water is questionable, or the sanitation, type of school lunches, etc., need changing. These are the problems to consider. We made a thorough study of whooping cough because we had it in our school. In our citizenship work we talked about quarantine and our duty in obeying quarantine rules. Now why did we do it? We had one boy who did not wish to break his perfect attendance record although he had a mild case of chickenpox. He spread chickenpox to eleven others and of this number two boys had been in perfect attendance for five years. When we have concrete examples at hand we should use them.

You will have no difficulty in presenting the rules of health for most children know them but they lack practise. Our plans and devices must center around the practise of the health rules.

Posters are an effective method of teaching. They present an idea or rule as often as the child looks upon them. I think good posters, well displayed aid more than words. After the child has seen some good posters let him create one with his own hands and with his own ideas. We held a Poster Triangle this spring in which three schools were invited to take part. The children were to make their posters with no help from the teacher. There were two divisions, one for the upper grades and one for the lower grades with cash prizes for the winners in each group. We had thirty-five posters.

Hand in hand with health work comes the use of first aid. By first aid I mean the actual application of the knowledge of what to do in an emergency requiring first aid.

A health bulletin board is one of the finest devices we have ever tried. We reserved one of our bulletin boards for health clippings only. At first the children will contribute very little but if the teacher supplies the material they will soon learn what is wanted. It was easy enough to teach children that they needed long hours of sleep. We found a picture of Coach Rockne of Notre Dame and the statement made by him, "I try to teach my football teams to sleep as one of the fundamentals of training. The man who gets the honest to goodness sleep by night is the man who is wide awake by day." Before seeing this the children felt that only kiddies had to spend much time in sleep. One morning a little fourth-grade child came in with her hands behind her and said, "Miss Kaufman, I've got something I know you'll want." She proudly displayed a small picture of Miss Hall, our county nurse, clipped from the newspaper. She with a few others decided that it ought to be put at the top of our bulletin board. There it remained the rest of the year.

Many simple devices are at hand to teach the child cleanliness. If this is taught early in life the habits formed will be routine factors in his life. One of the very important things and not so easily taught either is good clean play every day. We really find as we observe our children closely that some cannot play. When we have taken a child of this type and taught him to play and to enjoy it, we have placed his feet upon a solid foundation along the road to health. I agree with Theodore Roosevelt, "When you play, play hard, but when you work do not play at all."

A thing of utmost importance to a successful health program is that the teacher be an example of what she teaches. We realize that children pattern after models. We too must practise what we preach.

We so often give our boys and girls the idea that our heroes are chiefly found in history in the midst of battle and bloodshed. True there are heroes there. With just a little effort or research on our part as teachers, we can show that there are other heroes in other battlefields that are not battlefields of war. Here we would consider the men who have given of their time, effort, money, and sometimes of their lives for the health and wellbeing of future generations. We would include such men as Pasteur and Jenner.

After the children's interest has been aroused you will find it easier to bring about a community interest. This can be done by holding a health rally or a patrons' day, at which time the work and plans can be explained. In order to make a success of a health program we must have the cooperation of the home where most of this health work is carried on.

Summing up the facts gained from a health program we learn that:

1. All projects must be interesting
2. Use simple rather than elaborate devices
3. An appeal to the younger children will carry over to the older ones
4. Use the story element to develop ideas
5. Meet the health needs of group or locality you are in
6. Stress practise of the health rules
7. Encourage a knowledge of first aid
8. Foster the idea of good clean play every day
9. The teacher must practise what he preaches
10. Arouse a community interest.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION IN SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

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Two misconceptions are widely held and commonly expressed in published articles, especially by writers with but superficial knowledge of the rural field. The first is that the small school is a sort of educational dodo, practically extinct or at least a museum specimen. The second is that the small rural school is a hopeless situation for the expression of modern educational theory, and that only by combination or consolidation of several small schools to make one large one, is it possible to afford progressive education to rural children.

The latest available statistics are for 1927-28. In that year there were in the United States 153,306 one-room schools. Illinois alone had over 10,000, the largest number of any state in the Union. Iowa had only about 500 fewer, or over 9,500. Kansas, Missouri, New York, and Pennsylvania each had over 7,000. Nearly four-fifths of the teachers of South Dakota were in one-teacher schools. So were over 50 percent of the teachers of North Dakota; over 40 percent of the teachers of Iowa, Montana, Nebraska, and Vermont; over 30 percent of the teachers of Arkansas, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming; over 20 percent of all the public school teachers in the United States; and about 4,000,000 rural children or approximately one-third of the total rural school enrolment, and nearly half of all the farm children enroled in elementary and secondary schools.

True, we have every year fewer and fewer one-teacher schools. In 1917 the Federal Bureau of Education estimated their number to be 195,000. Apparently 42,000 have been eliminated in eleven years. But at the rate of approximately 4000 a year, it would be close to forty years before the present assumption of dodoism would be true. Of course nobody knows whether we shall maintain that rate. We may accelerate it with the increasing improvement of roads and of airplane transportation; we may decrease it with the increasing sparsity of farm population. What we do know, however, is that we now have at least as many rural children in one-teacher as in consolidated schools, and that so far as the vast majority of them are concerned, the quality of their elementary education depends upon the quality of the instruction given in small rural schools.

It would be a sad case indeed for these millions of children if the second assumption of the impossibility of progressive education in small schools were a fact. On the basis of ten years of experimentation, I am glad to be able to say quite positively that I am sure it is not a fact. Given the kind of teacher who can do a progressive type of educational work anywhere; given equal provision in length of term, educative equipment, and supervision; and given an enrolment of between twenty and forty pupils, or a few more or less, and a very fine type of progressive education may be had in these schools. Consolidation is steadily to be promoted, because administratively consolidation contributes to the provision of the essential conditions—good teachers, adequate supervision, terms, equipment, and a pupil group large enough for socialized activity. But where sparse population, topography, or climate militate against consolidation, there is for those who could afford progressive education to all children, another means at hand in improvement of the facilities in the one-teacher schools.

Progressive education, indeed, reveals itself as the catalytic which enables the characteristic elements of the small rural school to organize themselves into a desirable whole. The great handicap of the traditional type of one-teacher school is the large number of "recitations" required for many subjects in many grades. The modern conception of education, however, replaces verbal recitation with socialized activity. Integration of subject-matter is effected through large units of work developed around genuine life interests and experiences. Children are not classified in closely homogeneous groups on a basis of achievements in skills or factual knowledge, but work together, as people do in life outside the school, on enterprises of common interest in which each participates according to his ability. Some are clever with their fingers, others show peculiar ability in finding and bringing in interesting objects for group use, others contribute clippings or pictures, others search the library and report what they have read. Some paint and draw, some contrive mechanical devices, some write poems or plays, and still others take the lead in the organization and conduct of school clubs or group games. The groups cut across one another, and the child who is the admired and respected leader in literary activities may become the humble follower of an erstwhile school dullard when there is a sand table to be constructed or scenery to be painted for a school play.

Individual differences are recognized in the progressive school, not by crude attempts at classification in assumedly homogeneous groups, which prove, when organized, still to be composed of widely varying members; but by replacing group with individual instruction in matters which each needs to learn, but which each must learn at his own rate, and which each can best learn in his own way. So in the new school there is equipment for individual study, which any child may be guided to use just when he needs it, rather than be formally assigned, whether he has at the time any use for it at all, because his teacher or his supervisor believes that he will need it one day. It is a reasonably safe assumption that if any knowledges or skills are genuinely minimal essentials, that is, are sure to be needed by every one, in the practical conduct of his life, they will prove necessary in the rich range of activities which the modern school conceives to compose education. That a checklist is desirable may be freely granted but its chief use should be to make the teacher inquire of himself whether he is truly utilizing all the potentially educative opportunities of the child's enriched environment, rather than to drive him back to the old subjectmatter—set-forth-to-be-drilled—upon conception of education.

The hardest lesson we have to learn, we who are stumblingly working out our technics in the new mode of educating which we believe in, but which we have not yet learned perfectly to employ, is to see the educative experiences that lie in the child's environment, and to realize from each potentiality the best that is in it. A group of rural teachers were reading with their supervisor one of the charming reports of the country and city day school. They read of the interest of the children of that school in boats, and the range of activities, growing out of that interest, which led those children into far countries and into reading, writing, music, and a host of other worthwhile experiences. And they wailed: "If only *we* had such an environment as they, we too could have our children do interesting things. *We* have nothing but trees!"

As a matter of fact, the school they envied was set in a crowded city street near wharves which an unperceiving teacher might have seen as sordid and ugly, while she envied the trees and birds and lovely old colonial homes full of suggestive relics of the past which the rural teachers aforementioned had all about them and which they came in time to see and to use in excursions and art, dramatization and verse.

It is no narrowing intensive acquaintance with a limited environment which progressive education in small rural schools seeks for its children. In the end, for all our children, we desire the fullest and most complete appropriation of all the world's goods, all the social heritage, that is desirable for the best realization of each individual capacity. In the beginning, for each child wherever he may live, country or city, north, south, east, or west, the place to begin is where he is. In each case we begin with the home life and surroundings, and discover the child problems and needs that there arise; then turn for solution or satisfaction to the experiences of the race, as preserved in history, geography, arithmetic, or language.

The country child, because he lives in the country, because his experiences have been country experiences, will have somewhat different problems or interests from those of the city child. His early lessons will be based on country conditions, and his thinking will be in country terms. But his needs and problems will sooner or later lead him to the same sources of information and be satisfied by the same racial accumulations of which he and the city child are coheritors. His problems of number may arise out of familiar situations with poultry, lumber, corn yields, or the work and play activities of his home and school, indeed, they should so arise, but they must be solved in the end by the fundamental processes, fractions or percentages. His need for the power of expression which language supplies, or for the interpretation of human experiences which is the poet's gift to mankind, may be a natural outgrowth of his acquaintance with nature, but it can be satisfied only by the same English language and literature which he shares with the city child. His problems of sanitation and hygiene may be based upon the safety of the farm well or the necessity of so caring for house and stable refuse as to prevent the breeding of the typhoid fly, but they will find their answer in the same biology, the same laws of health which apply to the city dweller.

Like all other children, the child of the country craves companionship, recreation, esthetic gratification. It is these longings and desires, which if unsatisfied, often drive him to the city streets in search of thronging crowds, movies, glittering shop windows and glaring lights, museums, picture galleries, theaters, music halls. But the country school may see in these natural desires for companionship and recreation leads to a wide range of activities—social organization, play fests, athletic meets, active sports, social centers, bands or glee clubs, and the privilege of acquaintance with the master minds of literature. As for the craving for esthetic gratification, where is there finer, more varied beauty than woods and fields afford? Where is there greater pleasure than the nature lover finds in traversing the swamp and pasture with field glass or camera? Out of excursions like this there grow in the country boys and girls perception of the beneficence and beauty of the world about them, and interests that all their lives they may find pleasure in satisfying, so that for them there may be indeed "sermons in stones, books in the running brooks, and good in everything." Henry Turner Bailey once wrote:

> When we know enough, we wiseacres who superintend and supervise measurements and tests and platoon systems, we shall have the buses of the board of education taking children out into the country, instead of bringing them into the most congested parts of the city.
>
> In that blessed time there will be observation areas, woods and meadows with brooks and pools, pastures with cattle, and fields with men at work, where the children now starved in cities will be taken for nature study at first hand to lay a foundation for an intelligent appreciation of folklore, history, literature, poetry, music, and all the fine arts.

Nor are the esthetic experiences of the nature environment all the potentiality the rural school has to use. In the social and economic life about it are to be found, in simple and accessible form, examples of all the great institutions and occupations of the world. The home, the store, the village postoffice or rural route; the roads and their makers, the vehicles of many kinds which travel them and the destinations to which they go; the production of food and its transformation in the home and perhaps in a local creamery or mill, the milk hauled daily to the railroad station to be sent to city homes far away; sheep shearing or cotton picking, old spinning wheels or looms in occasional attics, or some neighborhood grandmother who still quilts or weaves rag carpets; the tax assessor, town meeting, state police, or fire warden; the school with its local trustee, the county nurse, or the book truck; the county or state fair; the local election, held perhaps in the schoolhouse itself—all these and many more may afford experiences educative in themselves, and rich in leads to the wider and more remote environment beyond the neighborhood bounds, to be increasingly experienced through books, pictures, and radio.

Probably there are few of you but will agree that the range of genuine life experiences which rural children may know firsthand, in which indeed, they may actually participate, afford unrivalled materials for progressive education. But many of you doubtless question the possibility of realizing these potentialities in the small rural school. Let us admit at once that a school with an unqualified teacher, meager equipment, a short term, and little or no supervision is not capable of the type of education we are envisaging. For that matter, such a school is a travesty on the name, for neither is it capable of a good quality of formal or old type schooling. It is one of the most cruel pretenses and shams in civilized society today. But a small school need not have a poor teacher or niggardly supplies or a short term. It is here that we have let ourselves be blinded by a confusion of issues. The small school does have certain intrinsic characteristics that make it a peculiar educational problem, but none of the aforementioned handicaps are intrinsic or essential. They could be removed by adequate legislation and financial expenditure in a small school no less than in a large one, and their common occurrence in small schools is the result of a short sighted policy of frequently deliberate neglect.

The two peculiar and inherent difficulties of the one, and to a slightly less extent, of the two-teacher school, are the wide range of age and ability levels and of subjects to be simultaneously taught by one teacher; and the small size of a single grade, resulting in deficient social stimulation. But when subjects become integrated in units of study or activity, and when several grade levels participate in a common enterprise, both these difficulties are removed or lessened to the point of practicability. For ten years in our experimental rural schools we have found it possible to organize our school in three groups, rather than in eight grades, thus giving the teacher time to be a genuine guide and helper and making possible for each child a group with which to work or play that is sufficiently large to be interesting, stimulative, and productive of genuine social experiences of give and take, leadership and followership, cooperation and control.

Such an organization, it is important to note, requires a curriculum of the same shape, and therefore is not possible in small schools as long as we continue to provide them only with courses of study made to fit the organization which best meets the needs of the city schools, with their multitude of children on a fairly common level.

But there is no small rural school that cannot take some steps toward activity and integration of experiences. And there is no small school that cannot begin to put its emphasis on the child's needs and growth, rather than on subjectmatter and formal learnings.

In a certain group of small rural schools which I know, the teachers this year have consciously worked toward making their schools "child-centered," and have set before them five aims harmonious with that main objective:

1. An atmosphere of real friendliness, companionship, and cooperation between the teacher and the pupils and among the pupils themselves

2. An atmosphere of creative selfexpression through the medium of language, music, drawing, modeling, and other types of handwork
3. Enough freedom and informality to allow children to develop naturally; to be unaffected and unselfconscious
4. An atmosphere of orderliness and attractiveness of the building and grounds, through the sharing of responsibilities
5. More careful consideration of the child's physical, social, and moral development as well as his mental growth; the development of personality.

Another group of teachers of similar schools, with the same large aim in mind, suggested as goals for their forthcoming year's work the following:

1. A definite effort to foster pupil initiative
2. Each class period a discussion period with children leading
3. Encouragement of appreciation of the beautiful in nature, literature, and art
4. A civics club in every room through which the children develop habits of good citizenship and a feeling of responsibility for the welfare of the school
5. Every room providing for and encouraging individual differences through a variety of types of work
6. Music in every school.

I wish you could see those schools with their variety of educative activities: A big farm is laid out on the floor of one, with last year's dollhouse for the farmhouse, and a model barn constructed from a disused doghouse. The day I saw it, the barnyard was spread with fresh alfalfa which the children had brought to feed their cows.

In another school there is a growing museum; native woods, cut and polished to show the grain; stones of the neighborhood; mounted insects; a collection of Indian relics; a cage which on the day of my visit held a just brought in mole, and two days later housed a rabbit one of the boys had caught in the hay field; a big chart mounted with drawings of birds the children had seen; a collection of fungi. On the walls, too, were maps of the individual woodland spots which each child claimed for his own, and in which he watched for new phenomena to report to his group. A series of large pictures, on wrapping paper, showed the adjacent field, in spring, summer, autumn, and winter.

The primary groups in all these schools were studying life in other lands and other days. A fjord in Norway, the surrounding mountains built of rocks from the children's own fields; the story of farm tools, from the early days when ploughs were crooked boughs and hoes were clam shells fastened to a stout stick, to the present time of tractor drawn machinery; a neighboring truck farm, carefully reproduced in every detail, even to the rich black earth the children had brought in pails to cover the ground—these were some of the representative scenes built on sandtables or in a corner on the floor. In every school there was something of the kind to be seen, but no two were alike.

One little rural school drew a large part of its hygiene course from its very well organized and conducted hot lunch; another developed a school citizenship club to an unusually effective degree; a third organized a poetry club and wrote such lovely verses that Hughes Mearns incorporated several of them in a talking moving picture which he recently made; a fourth visited old homes and antique shops in its New England neighborhood and made a delightful study of furniture and homes of colonial days; and still another developed a charming primary band, the little leader of which was chiefly trained by his fifth-grade brother, who had spent all his school days in a school which was seeking progressive education.

The type of work I have described does not require a large amount of class time or teacher direction. Children work on these various activities at all hours, whenever they have time. Occasional periods with the teacher are used to report progress, to plan and initiate some new phase of the enterprise, or for individual help along a variety of lines. An industrial arts period, conducted mainly on an individual basis, will serve as an illustration of this type of class meeting:

> The fifteen children of the intermediate group were doing as many different things for they were in the midst of preparing the annual Christmas box for the orphanage, and this was the period for the teacher to help them with whatever they were planning to do in their later free periods. First Edna wanted to know how to start crocheting the edge of her handkerchief, then came Alfred saying that the boys in the hall needed help with the toy animals. There were too many boys in too small a space, and a conference then and there settled how many could work comfortably at once, who would come next, and how long each could work. That done, the teacher demonstrated to the entire group the method of making the stands and wheels and promised to help them paint the finished toys the next week. All but those whose turns came next returned to the classroom with her and soon were interested in some other Christmas present. The girls were ready for her. They were making stuffed cloth animals; they had their transfer patterns pinned to the cloth, their irons hot, and were waiting for the teacher's approval before going any further. The teacher saw that all was being done properly; she discussed with them what should be done next, and left them to help each other until the end of the period. By this time a small group who had previously made patterns for birch bark gifts had the bark cut and were ready for instruction in the next step. The teacher secured needles and raffia and showed how to buttonhole-stitch the pieces before they could be fastened together. She then worked individually with them until she saw that all understood the process and were working carefully. In their seats the rest of the children were working on calendars, blotters, book-bags, or other work which had been started at a previous period.

The same general technic is applicable to arithmetic, English composition, silent reading, or any other needed tool subject. The commercial individual instruction material, or others made by the children themselves are useful in such supervised drill periods. One child who needs to master certain addition or multiplication combinations may test himself by means of a pack of cards; another may be filling blanks in an effort to master some language usage difficult for him; several may be correcting compositions; others using map exercises to master certain location facts; still others engaged in silent reading with selfchecking tests, or outlining a history reference. The essential thing is that each child be doing what he needs at the time and wants teacher help in doing, or desires to have tested by the teacher before passing to another level of work. Since the needs are individual, it is no matter whether the children thus engaged are all of one grade, or whether they are scattered through six or eight grades. Whether all work simultaneously in one subject field is a minor matter conditioned by the nature and extent of the children's needs at any given time.

There is no question that the teacher who would successfully pursue a progressive program in a rural school must be master of certain definite technics. It is generally recognized that technics are essential to any teacher. What has not been equally recognized is that certain special conditions of teaching require special technics, and that the small rural school is one such special condition. Technics appropriate for formal work in a graded school will not fit it at all. Technics suitable for progressive work in a graded school come nearer fitting, but certain adaptations even of these are desirable.

One of the most important technics required of the teacher for progressive education in the small rural school, and indeed in any other, is that of participating in group discussions as a member of the group, taking the lead only when or as the group's need for guidance requires, but surely taking it then. This technic most of us, wherever we teach, probably need to continue to perfect throughout all our teaching days.

A second technic of especial importance to the teacher of the small rural school is that of handling a heterogeneous group of children as one class. I have seen skillful rural teachers do this again and again, but the ordinary training in class teaching will never develop it. I recall a country teacher whom I watched as he conducted a geography lesson with all grades from fourth through eighth participating. They had a common problem, but pupils of differing advancement had different shares in its solution. The upper grade pupils had used advanced geographies in preparation for the class discussion, the younger had used the first geography book. Some had read in supplementary geographical readers, others had found pictures in the *National Geographic Magazine* or the pictured encyclopedia, still others had referred to government bulletins. Sandtable work had been going on, also outlining and the making of booklets. Every child was participating, even, and as a matter of fact, especially, a very dull and backward boy who had been classified as fourth grade solely on account of his size. "Harold found something for us in the agricultural atlas," the teacher would say, calling on his one eighth grade pupil for his contribution. Or, "Fourth grade, you can tell us about this. You are helping to show it on your sandtable."

A third important technic consists in the subordination of the socalled "recitation" to the independent study of the pupils. In the country school, much of the pupils' study must go on at times when the teacher's attention is demanded for class work with another group. Under these circumstances, class periods are too valuable to be wasted in mere recitation. Perhaps the city teacher can afford to spend them in this way, but the country teacher certainly cannot. There are too many other things needing to be done, if the study periods are to be profitably used. Selecting a group enterprise, formulating the purpose or the problem clearly, setting up plans for work, criticizing plans, distributing responsibilities, reporting progress; practise under teacher oversight of desired habits of work to be later pursued unsupervised; guidance in the use of encyclopedia and dictionary, of indexes, tables of content, and card catalogs; instruction in outlining and notebook work, or in use of individual practise materials; introduction to tools and training in their use; discussion of school conduct and development by the pupils of plans and regulations for selfcontrol and group-control—these and many other similar matters must be given right of way in the precious periods when teacher and pupils meet.

A fourth important technic is concerned with organization of the school management in such a way as to make it definitely educative. In the care and beautification of school grounds, in the essential housekeeping duties and sanitary provisions for which the responsibility devolves upon teacher and pupils of the small rural school, in organization of the play activities for all groups, in the school lunch, the protective care of the smaller children, and in the government of the school, there are potentialities for genuinely progressive education, provided the teacher sees the opportunities and knows how to use them.

And a final technic involves recognition of times when individual instruction is more serviceable than class work on a common problem, and the provision as needed of a period or periods when each child is engaged in the work which is of most concern to him at the moment, while the teacher passes about the room, giving a word of advice here, a brief criticism there, sitting down by this child to help him over a difficult place, or calling these two or three to her for assistance on a point which is troubling them all.

With these technics, and with the ever dominating concept of the school as a place for helping each child to grow along his best lines and at his best rate, the small rural school becomes an organic agency of high type for wholesome child development. The chief essential is a teacher qualified for the desired type of work, although space, library provision, handwork materials, an adjusted curriculum, and constructive supervision are all important. With our present condition of an overcrowded teaching profession, we are more favorably situated than ever we have been in the past to select the persons who shall be in the high calling of teaching, and to require educational preparation adequate to the task. With the advance of the progressive educational idea, and its concrete exemplification in hundreds of situations, suggestions and materials are increasingly available. Have we not reached the time when we are justified in expecting that every rural school, however small, shall be a place of genuine education of high quality?

CHARACTER EDUCATION PROJECTS—ABSTRACT

MARIAN SMITHLING, HEAD TEACHER, LEWIS COUNTY SCHOOL,
MARTINSBURG, N. Y.

Work in character education in our district started with a general conference of all the teachers in our supervisory district in charge of Miss Helen Hay Heyl, state assistant in rural education in New York, who gave an inspiring talk, which at once created interest in the experiment. After listing with her desirable traits in school children, the teachers selected honesty, courtesy, cooperation, and initiative as good habits which they all wished to try to develop in their schools that year. Naturally any other characteristics, for which there seemed a special need in individual schools, were to be stressed also. For example in our school we worked on neatness, perseverance, and appreciation of beauty as well as the other traits mentioned. It was suggested that the teachers in the group read "The Teaching of Ideals" by Charters.

While indirect teaching of good habits was perhaps the most efficiently used, we could have accomplished little without direct instruction to steer our thinking. Lessons were taught only as situations arose which needed remedying. Success was measured in terms of improvement noticed as a result of these lessons. An illustration from my school is probably typical of the average direct instruction lesson.

The group work which we were just beginning was not going well because the children were taking advantage of the opportunity to waste time while making a pretense of working together. Others were forming the habit of giving half true excuses for unprepared work or tardiness.

After reading a poem about a real man, who seemed much like Lincoln in his character, the children quite readily began telling familiar stories, which they thought proved that the author must have been thinking of him. They were soon led to discover that it was Lincoln's absolute honesty which always inspired the love and respect of his friends. A discussion of untruthful attitudes followed and gradually some of the bad habits I had observed were mentioned by the class. As the pupils seemed aware of their faults and willing to try to improve, we agreed to list school situations where we had noticed these weaknesses and to decide together how they could act truthfully on such occasions. I asked the children to watch for a week and each be ready to tell how he or one of the others met the same or similar situations. A discrimination test the following day helped to keep the assignment in mind.

On the day set for reports I was not surprised to hear some encouraging comments from the class, as there had been a noticeable improvement. I had observed the children reminding one another when silliness or aimless talking was hindering their group work. The quality of the work accomplished was better. They had shown throughout the week a greater sense of responsibility in performing all school duties promptly. This showed that there had been no good reason for the tardiness, also that half true excuses were no longer popular.

As the year went on much originality was shown in the use of poems and stories as a means of direct teaching. Multiple choice tests which required the children to select the right way to act in a given situation were used successfully. The boys and girls learned lessons of industry and perseverance from studying the picture "The Gleaners." They collected pictures showing how they could practise these habits. Suitable slogans often selected by the children were kept on the blackboards. The best conduct assignments always made clear to the pupils how they could apply the lessons to their own everyday lives. Perhaps some of us have in the past said to the children, "Be honest," or "You should be more courteous." We failed to get results because we did not definitely teach them how to be honest or courteous. Short talks with the pupils, the use of memory gems and debating were also helpful methods of carrying on the work.

Our best indirect instruction in character education was accomplished through clubs especially in the grammar grades. We organized a club in our school but did not know how to proceed with the work at first. The president appointed various committees to care for the room each week. Our superintendent wisely suggested my reading "Four Years in a Country School" by Dunn and Everett, especially the chapter giving an account of a very successful club in a genuine country school.

While I noticed a decided improvement in the club, still the children had little initiative. They were willing but lacked ideas and politely waited for my directions. Feeling that their apparent lack of originality might be due to selfconsciousness in my presence, I left them to hold a meeting alone one morning. Before going I turned over to the treasurer some money which we had received for prize projects at the county fair, and said to the president, "I have work to do in the primary room for about fifteen minutes. Find out how the club would like to spend this money." I thought, "Probably they will decide to spend it for ice cream or candy but it will be money well spent if they will only talk and plan something themselves." At the end of fifteen minutes, I was surprised and pleased to find them deep in a discussion of some sort, and quietly withdrew again. On returning a little later I was told that they had not had time to talk about spending the money. Instead they had discussed two cases of dishonesty. I had suspected these cases but I had not had sufficient proof of them to justify interference. The club's decision was that one offender was to be put back to card I in the Courtis Tests. Another was to have his answer book taken away until he showed he was capable of using it in the right way. The best part of all was that the guilty parties took their punishment agreeably. If I had set the penalties, I am almost sure that one would have sulked all day and that the other would have denied that he had cheated.

As initiative grew in our club the children began writing plays and making posters to correct bad habits which they had observed among themselves. Miss Johnston visited our room when they were working on better attention in class. A poster which they were making advertised good manners. "Keep your feet still" was the contribution of a little boy, whose feet hardly touched the floor and were in perpetual motion. A play had been written about a group of children who decided, with the teacher's permission, that on a certain day they would all act as rudely as the worst boy in class. Of course the worst boy was properly ashamed of himself and decided to turn over a new leaf right away. After they had given the play for Miss Johnston she asked them if they thought their own manners had improved since they wrote it. The most difficult child turned quickly to her and said, "I don't think I'm quite as rude as I was."

Lessons in courtesy were thoroughly enjoyed by the children in every school. Energy which in the past might have gone toward annoying the teacher while company was in the room was used instead in properly receiving the guests and making them comfortable. In our school the children enjoyed learning table manners in little parties where they took turns at playing host and hostess.

By the middle of the year the children had become fairly skilful in managing their group undertakings and in writing plays. A few had attempted writing poetry. Helping them to gain initiative had been so interesting to me that I began to wonder if I had been having too large a share of the fun. We had talked of inviting the parents and friends to a party in honor of Washington's birthday. We decided that the children would plan a program all alone, write plays, stories and poems, write invitations, plan room decorations, refreshments, and take charge of the practising. It was to be entirely their own. They wisely, without any suggestion from me, chose the most original girl as chairman. Besides the creative ability which that program developed, the lessons in cooperation were valuable. A few days before the entertainment the chairman reported to me that the practising was not going very well. I asked the pupils to sit down, think for a few minutes, then try to give some good rules for practising a program. I shall mention just a few which they wrote.

1. Know when your part comes and be ready
2. Help the others to put on their costumes
3. Don't be silly
4. Do not walk around when it is not necessary.

These are only simple directions which you have probably given children many times. But how much more they meant when the pupils thought them out because of needs they personally felt when preparing their program.

On the afternoon of the party I sat among the guests. The hostesses for the afternoon received the visitors. When it was time for the entertainment to begin the chairman explained that the program was all their own work. Besides the original plays, poems, and stories the club had also prepared tableaux. In one scene we saw George Washington with a wig, a trifle too small and slightly awry, praising Betsy Ross for the flag which she had made. Later we saw Washington again at Valley Forge with his very ragged soldiers.

After the program the club girls served the refreshments. Earlier in the year I should not have thought it possible that my boys and girls could entertain me so pleasantly.

After we had progressed somewhat in our experiment we tried making a "Book of Golden Deeds." Whenever a child noticed an especially kind or courteous act done by one of his classmates, he wrote an account of the deed for the book. This helped to do away with quarreling and unkind criticisms by encouraging a friendly spirit among the children.

The reminder board which was mentioned in the beginning was not successful in my school but in a nearby school it proved unusually helpful. If a child felt he had a bad habit, which he wished to conquer, he wrote it on the reminder board and signed his name. It was understood that no one was to do so unless he sincerely felt he needed to conquer that particular fault. Here are a few statements taken from the reminder board in that school.

I must stop cheating—Gerald Wakefield
I must stop attending to other people's business—Eleanor Wakefield
I must be more polite—Freda Campany
I must stop crying so much—Doris Domser
I have got to work harder—Jeanette Cuff
I must stop hollering and running in the school room—Doris Domser.

No child was allowed to erase his name from the reminder board until the club decided he had shown sufficient progress in conquering his fault to justify its removal.

One of the older girls in the same school told about watching from the next room her little six-year-old brother climb up and take a penny from the clock shelf at home. Then he put it back and said to himself, "If I took it I'd just have to put my name on that reminder board."

We have now finished the second year of our work in character training. A course in child development has led us to find out more about conditions in the homes of our children. Equipped with this knowledge, we are able to deal more understandingly with the problems we meet every day.

Many of my children come from homes which are unattractive. We have tried to make our schoolroom as lovely a place as possible. It is an old fashioned room with double seats fastened to the floor and incorrect lighting. A bookcase, tables, and chairs, some of which were made by the boys, have been painted a pale green. White curtains at the windows are ruffled with green. An old arm chair covered with gay cretonne, new pictures in old frames and blossoming plants have all helped to create an atmosphere tending to encourage creative ability. The pupils are expressing their ideas through poetry, plays, and movies. The making of movies has furnished fun for the pupils and has made extensive reading on their part necessary. Constructing the frame for the movie and doing the printing have developed skill in handwork. My fifth-grade history class worked on group projects when studying explorers. While an art critic would rightly have called their drawings crude, the children were very proud of their movie showing the adventures of Champlain.

In addition to the books I have already mentioned we gained many helpful suggestions from the Los Angeles and Buffalo bulletins on character education, also from articles on the subject, which we frequently found in the current magazines.

In conclusion I can say that the children and I have thoroughly enjoyed the projects. I am sure also that we have obtained the following results from the experiments in character education and child development.

1. Initiative on the part of both pupils and teacher
2. A greater sense of cooperation among pupils
3. A better knowledge and understanding of pupils by the teacher
4. A better understanding between the teachers and their superintendent
5. Increased ability on the part of the pupils
6. Increased respect for the opinions of others
7. A real desire on the part of the children for the traits toward which we worked
8. Improvement in the behavior of school children outside of school hours noticed by parents and friends
9. Greater consideration for the feelings of others on the part of the children.

THE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL'S CONTRIBUTION TO PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

GLENN DRUMMOND, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LOGAN COUNTY, OHIO

In this paper, when we speak of the consolidated school, we shall have in mind any school in rural territory which has brought its children together by transportation in sufficient numbers to maintain a grade unit offering twelve years of training.

We recognize that many good things could be said about the possibilities of the one-room school in a progressive educational program. However, wherever the topography of the country permits, we think such a program should be discouraged. We find an ever increasing, shifting population in rural territory and the one-room school which has sufficient children to operate this year, next year may dwindle to a bare half-dozen children. To arouse interest among rural people to support a program which would justify the one-room program rather than the consolidated one surely would require greater effort and leadership with less hope of returned benefits to the children and to the community.

Modern machinery is bringing larger farm units with a lessened population in rural area and fewer and fewer children within walking distance of the one-room school. Transportation facilities are making the community an increasingly larger one.

We believe a warning should be given by leaders in rural education to those counties and states in which not much consolidation has been done not to make the mistake made in so many places in Ohio of consolidating in too small units. A perusal of the study made by our own state director, Dr. J. L. Clifton, shows the serious mistake made by Ohio in building and chartering so many small high schools. In our own county (Logan) two small consolidated elementary units have abandoned their buildings to be annexed to larger units. The buildings of these abandoned units stand idle today.

During the last decade we have seen the rapid consolidation of our one-room schools. We have seen the consolidated schools at first adopt the college preparatory Latin-type curriculum and then make attempts to democratize it.

Anyone who has ever gone through a consolidation program carrying along with it a bond issue will readily grant that seldom does any proposition face rural people which arouses the thinking and stirs up the discussion such as this school problem. Such a program, if successful, necessarily becomes an educational one; people who probably would never have given the child problem a serious thought under other conditions begin thinking of child welfare and child growth and agencies contributing to that development and growth. They form new contacts, they forget their small localisms under this new broadening influence. Leadership develops rapidly and carries over into the larger community activity after consolidation. In our experience during the last few years we can cite two instances where those radically opposed to the consolidated program were placed in power by the electorate to direct the consolidated program soon after the consolidation of the new building unit. In each case these boards of education within a short time were directing a more progressive and more expensive program than those in power at the time of the consolidation. The men placed in a position of responsibility, a real learning situation for them, caught a new vision and then did their best to attain for their children and community the advantages which were envisaged.

The one-room school of pioneer age in its setting of virgin timber must have been a beauty spot, and so is the modern consolidated school giving attention to its architecture, its landscaping, and to its interior decoration. The rural child of today is finding that he is living, both at home and at school, in an environment of beauty or of opportunity for beauty that the city cannot possibly offer without sacrificing space needed for outdoor recreation.

He enters the school bus which holds its part in the child's opportunity for development, he passes into a school building that he is gradually learning is his, he enters his workshop, whether first grade or twelfth, and finds attractive, well-lighted, well-ventilated surroundings. He need no longer recite from textbook to teacher in a class of one or two, but instead he finds he is with a group of children of near his own age and interests, a group where ideas are exchanged and where he, as well as his classmates, can delve into a library which is bringing him the experience and literature of the ages and in a language he can understand. He finds difference of opinion in books and in the classroom and a teacher who sometimes is not so cramped by tradition but that he allows for this free statement of opinion.

Although the consolidated school is now measuring well with the city schools as to its training of teachers, and is equipped with libraries and the usual teaching aids, in addition it still has some of the advantages of the pioneer school.

Here again are children of all ages associated in buses and in school. Pupil responsibility and consideration of others is forced upon them. They live together. The rural home still has its individual responsibility impressed upon its home membership, offering learning situations which, we believe, the city never will be able to afford.

Although the schools may try to provide an activity program for the development of certain ideals, attitudes, habits, and skills, yet only as this is carried into the home and community life, does it function. In other words, except as the community is closely tied with the school in its aims, can the level of culture be raised? The rural community as compared with the city unit is made up of people with closely allied interests. The adults are easily drawn in close contact to the school program. The consolidated school has its laboratories as does the city unit, but, in addition the whole community becomes the laboratory to the rural child.

Living in close contact with the earth and growing things, both plants and animals, his varied interests on the farm throw the rural child into constant thinking and testing situations on questions brought up in school. The ordinary home and farm management also give plenty of opportunities to practise the skills.

When we speak of the consolidated unit contributing to progressive education, we are not thinking of that bare unit built in the open country where teachers daily drive in from the outside. We do think of that school whose teachers become a part of the community in which they work and become vitally interested in its problems.

We mentioned before that the rural community had closely allied interests. The cities favored communities are made up of people of diversified interests whose business may be in another section of the city or state. A citizen cannot name the residents of his side of the street in the same square. There are no ties of interest. We live in a small city and we know this to be true from personal experience. Yet in the rural community we find those who know practically every adult living in the entire consolidated community. In the school program that is alive we find the teacher generally known and recognized by the parents, often being invited into their homes.

The organizations within the community such as the Grange, farm bureau and parent-teacher association for the most part are closely allied with the school program. Live home and community problems in which children, teacher, and parents are interested can be brought to the classroom. The consolidated school is becoming the community center as did the church and one-room rural school in a former period.

We can think of no one item of our presentday curriculum contributing more to the worthy use of leisure time and happy home membership, as well as contributing to a happy community life than music. We have found, almost as soon as consolidation takes place, the demand for musical instruction. With consolidation come the musical activities from toy band to high-school orchestra; choruses of primary grades to operettas in high school. Soon comes a union with other consolidated units to form the county high-school chorus and county high-school orchestra. With what pride and pleasure do these rural communities listen to and look upon these new accomplishments of their children!

In our observation we are wondering also if the presentday consolidated school is not affording the best type for the improvement of teaching. In the school we mention, frequent "talk shop" meetings were held. These meetings were partly social, yet at some time of the year each teacher of the group brought into one of these meetings a problem which was his own. He presented it, giving his thought and the solution as he had thus far worked it out. Other teachers were free with questions, criticisms, and discussion, democratic in the extreme. There was no fear of dictatorial supervision.

We can think of no better way for the development of initiative. We recognize that this is possible in a city system but hardly in the homey way with the viewpoints of teachers of twelve grades. In addition there is always the danger of too close supervision killing initiative as well as holding to a traditional level.

If classroom situations are to be developed which will bring about "felt needs," the classroom teachers must be encouraged in their attempts at originality. We fear we have but few trained supervisors today who are willing for their teachers to vary far from the beaten track. Young leadership in our consolidated schools, along with teachers who have caught the vision of the philosophy which may mean "the passing of the recitation" seems to me our best hope for the realization of a "Dewey philosophy."

SUPERVISING ACTIVITY PROGRAMS IN RURAL SCHOOLS —ABSTRACT

JENNIE M. HAVER, HELPING TEACHER, HUNTERDON COUNTY, N. J.

Rural supervision during the past decade has been generally concerned with the training of untrained teachers. With the advancement in the certification required in many states today, rural supervision must now recognize the various types of teachers, take into consideration their training and experience, and after careful study determine methods of supervision suited to each. We, as supervisors, need to apply sound psychological principles in our work with teachers. Individual differences, interest, self-activity, satisfaction in accomplishment on the part of teachers—all have their effect on the final value of the supervisory program. Our work is to recognize these principles, mix our supervisory technics with a large measure of human understanding, and study with the teachers the best methods of securing steady progress of school children each at his best rate and under the conditions that are most favorable to him.

Today the best current thinking seems to agree that that teaching is most valuable which secures the greatest amount of desirable learning on the part of each pupil. Pupils learn by doing. Hence, activities should form a large part of the curriculum. In their efforts to work, the children meet important problems requiring solution, questions which must be answered, difficulties which must be removed, and outstanding needs which must be satisfied. Solving their problems, answering their questions, removing their difficulties and obstacles, and satisfying their needs necessitate all sorts of efforts on their part. The old time formal recitation does not meet all these needs. The pupils must read in textbooks, consult libraries, interview people, go on excursions to see things, make things, drill themselves to improve their skills, experiment—in other words, they must live a complete, rich, well-rounded life in the schoolroom to attain those desirable habits, skills, and attitudes which are now considered important goals of instruction.

Picture if you will for a moment the proverbial rural school and then come with me to visit a schoolroom that has an interesting activity program in sixth-grade history. Early one snowy morning I stepped into the entry of the schoolhouse and found four sixth-grade boys sitting on a sled with an old skunk skin suspended in front of them. They were removing the hair with pliers. I laughed and then asked them what in the world they were doing.

"We are preparing a skin for Indian writing," one gravely answered, and then when the boys found that I was not a bit shocked by the perfume that pervaded the little hallway they warmed to the subject and I listened with much interest to their comments.

"Gee, this way takes too long to get the hair off. We'd save time if we took it to the barbers and got it shaved," said one.

"Why do the white hairs come out easier than the black ones? Do you suppose the action of the sun on the black and white colors has anything to do with it?" asked Philip.

Frank turned to me and said, "Miss Haver, how did the Indians get the hair off the skins?"

"I don't know, Frank," I answered, "but I think I can find out."

Stanley piped up, "I think I can find a book that will tell us about the way Indians did things."

A few days later I stopped at the school a little better informed about Indian tanning processes than I had been on the previous visit. My information was not needed. I found a gallon paint can filled with an evil-looking solution of wood ashes and water and the boys informed me that part of the skunk skin was soaking in it.

"The lye in the wood ashes is what does the trick," one of the boys whispered to me as I passed his seat.

We need to challenge boys and girls to become aware of problems. Removing hair from a skin was a direct problem which those boys solved with much satisfaction to themselves. This problem led to other problems in primitive record keeping. The children made notched sticks and knotted cords; they made picture writing on rocks, skins, bark, and bones. Later they studied records of early civilization and made inscriptions on miniature monuments, clay tablets, wax tablets, scrolls of papyrus, and scrolls of parchment. They studied the evolution of the written language—picture writing, ideograms, phonograms, the rebus, and the alphabet—making each form as they studied about it. They journeyed with the alphabet from Egypt to Phoenicia, from Phoenicia to Greece, from Greece to Rome and our presentday alphabet. They were fascinated with their study of the evolution of the book. They made vertical scrolls, horizontal scrolls, and scrolls with writing arranged in page sections. Finally with the folded scroll they began to see the beginning of our books of today. They copied pages of old manuscripts and lived in imagination in the days when the art of illuminating reached its greatest glory. They collected pictures of the early printers—Gutenberg, Caxton, and Franklin. They studied pictures of old printing presses and experimented with block-printing themselves. They made New England hornbooks and began to sense the simplicity of those early colonial school days. Finally, they studied modern methods of printing, the linotype, the monotype, and the electrotype processes.

The teacher who guided this project had caught the spirit of the new education. His zest for his work inspired his fortunate pupils to greater and greater efforts. In the first place, history was made real to them.

In making the past live they had worthwhile experiences that were full of meaning and interest to them. They experimented freely with different mediums, clay, wood, paper, skin, crayon, paint, and ink. All had an opportunity to take part, but as each problem was carried on by volunteer workers, each child was at liberty to follow the line of his greatest interest. Less gifted children in regular school work were very successful. Several problem children became less troublesome which corroborates the experiments of Hartshorne and May in their "Studies in Deceit." One of the conclusions reached in their studies is stated as follows: "The progressive schools tested do not cheat as much as most of the conventional schools tested. This seems to be due to the factors of school or classroom morale, for which the teacher is largely responsible, but which also characterizes the whole school or class group from year to year." Careful checking by means of standard tests showed a steady growth in the regular school subjects.

The helping teachers in the rural sections of New Jersey are working with their teachers on a three-year rotation plan for social science in the first three grades. The basic plan calls for a study of home life, the consumption phase, for the first year; farm life, the production phase for the second year; and community life, the distribution phase for the third year. The large units developed last year were: Our own homes, pioneer homes, Indian homes, tropical homes, Eskimo homes, and primitive life.

This year a study of farm life formed the basis for much thoughtful activity work on the part of the children. The first unit consisted of the study of a typical farm in the neighborhood. This was followed by the study of milk, then by the study of bread. In early December the children studied Hebrew shepherd life and at Christmas time found that they had a beautiful setting for the Christmas story. Then came the study of desert life and during the spring months the mountain farms of Switzerland or Scandinavia, the lowlands of Holland and the farms of China were studied in turn.

Although our major interest this year has been in developing a sound activity program in social science we have not neglected it in the other school subjects. English lends itself to many forms of activity. Creative expression in verse is a very natural result of progressive work in a rural school. Teachers interested in this form of expression are securing very happy results from country boys and girls. Often interest in seasonal changes stimulates this natural impulse to rhyme. Here are two such rhymes:

The Flower

I have a little flower
It lives in the garden
I watch it day by day,
I feel pity for it,
For the north winds will
Soon be here and take it away.

A Fairy Screen

I am glad when I hear
The tinkling bells that go
Tinkle, tinkle, tinkle, you know
Just why I like it, for
I see beyond the meadow green,
A silver, gauzy, fairy screen.

Do you wonder that a supervisor looks forward eagerly to the day when she visits certain progressive rural schools? A shy country boy or girl may offer a poem that is an exquisite picture of the sincerity and joyousness of a child's imagination.

There are children who hear no rhythm in words, but see rhythm in line and color. These children create the pictures of their imagination with paint and paper, with clay and wood. Their hands translate the beauty of their minds into a concrete loveliness that adds color and enrichment to all their experience. English, the social studies, nature study, in fact, any subject in the traditional school curriculum may be enriched by this form of expression.

One of our chief desires in fostering an activity program in our rural schools is that each teacher and each child should be offered ample opportunity to express creatively the ideas which come to him during his work. President Hoover has recently referred to the delight one feels in creating anything as perhaps our greatest happiness. The impulse to create is strong from early childhood. To ignore this instinct through the school period of a child is wrong; to ignore it in the members of our teaching force is a crime against their professional growth. Our problem as supervisors is to discover the means whereby this instinct may find its greatest expression in progressive teaching. All teachers, as well as all children, are not equally able to think and act creatively, but our aim is to develop every bit of the power which each one possesses. According to individual differences the ability to create may manifest itself for some through work with the hands, for others through intellectual achievement, for still others through social organization.

Creative activity in the school makes work a joy to both teacher and pupil. Each is giving expression to the best that is in him. When we as rural supervisors give adequate attention to promoting creative work in our activity programs we shall be amazed not only in the improvement of the regular classroom instruction but also in the development of those intangible spiritual values which constitute the durable satisfaction in our teaching profession. Creative work should be the natural expression of a full, rich experience in the stimulating atmosphere of a modern rural school.

Whatever our technic of supervision in achieving an activity program in our rural schools we must add at the end that quality of enthusiasm—a word which in its derivative sense means an inward god. The work of translating modern school work into human conduct is indeed a godlike one. If we fully realize the significance of our work with our teachers and pupils we shall not fail.

INSTRUCTIONAL ASPECTS OF THE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

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We think of the consolidated school as a comparatively recent institution whose creation is one means of bringing the standard of educational opportunity for the farm population up to that of those living in towns and cities. This expansion has enriched the educational offerings of these rural communities in many ways and has awakened a keener interest in the work of the public school. In all phases of school activity, the kind of instruction which is provided should be given first consideration.

Equalizing educational opportunity for the rural boy or girl involves a number of steps. Bringing together into a centralized school children from several smaller schools in most cases will not only make possible an increase in the number of years of work offered but should result in strengthening the type of instruction which had previously been given in the small rural schools.

Such new schools have invariably called for a new building and many communities have in this manner made possible the maintenance of a center for community life. In districts where transportation has been provided the attendance of children from farm homes has increased. The availability of a high school near home has stimulated many to continue their education. Extracurriculum activities, with their fostering of group school spirit and opportunities for selfdevelopment and selfdiscovery, have rallied large numbers of people to the support of the school's program. But more significant than any of these worthy and desirable features is the provision for better instruction which ought to come from such a change and which ought to be the predominating feature of the consolidated school. Too often these other matters with their popular appeal cover up the importance of the teaching and learning process. In many places a splendid school plant or a successful basketball team is the embodiment of a successful school. It is taken for granted that everything else is of an equally high type.

In a certain county in Iowa, the Stanford Achievement Test was given to all pupils in the eighth grade of the one-teacher, consolidated, and other grade schools. The results showed that a consolidated school scored as much as twenty percent lower than the one-teacher rural schools of the county on the same test, that this school was below the level of the one-teacher schools in every subject except one, and its composite score was about ten percent below the average of the other rural eighth-grade pupils. The creation of a consolidated school does not inherently assure an improved type of teaching. It merely means that certain conditions which have limited the possibilities of the small one-teacher school have been removed. To those in charge of the school comes a challenge to raise the quality of teaching. No school is any better than the efficiency of its instruction.

It is almost impossible to separate the instructional aspects of a school from other phases of school operation. Ideally, all should mesh together in a unified effort. Using this point of view it is our purpose to suggest some of the factors in the teaching program of the consolidated school which seem to influence or limit its efficiency in a selfevident, but none the less considerable fashion.

In the establishment of any school the number of pupils to be brought together should not be overlooked. A school with 250 pupils has greater resources and possibilities than one of 100 pupils. More pupils generally means that more teachers need to be employed. More teachers means teachers specially trained for particular subjectmatter fields. More pupils means that the scope of a high-school program of studies may be expanded to acquaint pupils with various fields of usefulness.

This possibility of expanding the school curriculum must not be detached from the ability of the district to maintain such a school. There are certain reasonable limits beyond which boards of education ought not go in planning for schools. Patterning after city schools should not be practised. A recent study of Iowa shows, for example, that there are some districts employing twice as many teachers as other districts, for the same number of pupils. Conversely, teachers in some schools are teaching twice as many pupils as the same number of instructors are doing in others. Undoubtedly there are many instances in which communities are maintaining a four-year high school when they have neither pupils enough nor property enough to support twelve years of education. It is natural for all such districts to desire the best for their children who are worthy of every such opportunity and should have it. These matters should be given consideration in the establishment of consolidated schools, whether it be for secondary-school purposes or to include both elementary and secondary fields.

The curriculum of the consolidated school should reflect the best of modern thought and study. It should be scientifically planned to meet the needs of the children and community served by the school. If there be an acceptable state course of study, its fundamentals should be embodied in the curriculum of the consolidated school. It should recognize that rural boys and girls are living in a different home environment and industrial life than those of the city. Standards of accomplishment, based upon the curriculum, textbooks, and other materials of instruction, and with definite objectives should be set up. Because of the possibilities this type of school offers, its curriculum should be broader and richer than that of the one-teacher school with its limitations of time, materials, and teachers.

But perhaps the more commonly accepted advantages which these centralized schools are bringing to rural communities are in the high-school privileges made available. Not only in those subjects which are commonly found in the high-school program of studies, but also in those subjects which may directly relate to the experiences and activities of their homes, those who attend rural high schools find a new and better understanding of the environment in which they live and its implications. Such subjects as economic agriculture, home hygiene, related art, social problems, farm management, and others have untold value in assisting youths to find their place in the world.

One of the glaring inequalities in rural education, as contrasted with urban, has been the vast difference in opportunities for young folks to find their places in life. The city youth have had the benefit of a great variety of curriculums and subjects, whereas the majority of rural youth have had (and this applies today) very little chance in their small schools to discover, through varied contacts, their aptitudes and interests. Among our consolidated schools are a large number whose high-school program of studies is limited to one curriculum with provision for no elective subject. There should be available at least a few vocational courses in charge of well-prepared teachers.

A bulletin of the Federal Board for Vocational Education points out that sixty to seventy-five percent of those taking courses in vocational agriculture are now in agricultural work, thus suggesting the effect of well-organized instruction to a selected group reared on the farm. On the contrary, the program of studies of the consolidated school may equally well serve its purpose by helping students to learn that they are not interested in farming, secretarial work, or any other vocation. In some quarters there are those who feel that vocational subjects based upon rural life should not be emphasized in the consolidated school. These high-school boys and girls should have an opportunity to discover their vocational interests whether they lie in agricultural pursuits or elsewhere. However, there is fully as much justification for including strong agricultural courses in the consolidated school as there is for omitting these same curriculums from city schools.

In considering the problem of rural education and the curriculum of the consolidated school, the possibilities in health education promise a real contribution. The condition of the human machine among our rural population is below that of people living in cities. Furthermore, sanitary conditions in rural homes are in too many cases below par. A recent survey in Iowa showed that seventy-five percent of the teachers of small rural schools came from a farm environment. Under such conditions it is difficult to attract teachers who have experience, knowledge, and vision in hygienic and health matters to inspire children. Daily contacts with sanitary plumbing and clean, well-planned buildings combined with systematic health inspection and instruction will do much toward an improvement of rural health.

The major factor in the operation of any school is the teacher. Point out a school that has a good teaching staff and invariably you will find a good school. Splendid buildings, modern equipment, and financial economy of operation may make efficient instruction easier, but they do not make up for a lack of it. This is common ground for all types of schools, irrespective of type, size, or location.

The ability to attract strong teachers and retain them during the time their work is satisfactory is one of the most critical elements in the instructional program of a school. To the degree that the consolidated school is able to remedy this deficiency of the rural school, does it largely justify its existence. It is probably true that these schools do receive a fair share of inexperienced, but potentially good teachers, as they seek out candidates whose professional training equals or approximates the standards of the city schools. But the difficulty comes when these teachers have proved their worth and are seeking the material awards that should rightfully be received.

More attractive living conditions and a salary that will encourage a teacher to seek further training and make possible, as well as justify, the expenditure of money to secure continued preparation, prove alluring. Administrators who can offer these inducements will naturally seek out those in service who have demonstrated their abilities, and judicious superintendents and principals will not stand in the way of their advancement. To retain strong teachers the consolidated schools must meet this condition. They should not serve as proving grounds for teachers of city systems. Special curriculums to prepare teachers for rural and consolidated schools will never become popular as such until those who are interested in such courses may be attracted to and retained in these schools.

A number of other conditions relate to the instructional work of the consolidated school. The total enrolment in such schools usually gives more pupils per teacher than the one-room school, and less than the average for the city schools. This situation should avoid the difficulties of the ungraded school and also the impersonal teaching of the classroom with a large enrolment. Homogeneous grouping here is impractical, but perhaps the difficulty with which the teaching staff is able to differentiate methods according to the ability of the group does not make a handicap out of this situation. Teachers with special training for primary, intermediate, and grammar grade children are made possible. Departmental teaching can be arranged below the high school, and many unite the upper grades with the high school into a single junior-senior unit for administrative and instructional purposes.

In the average consolidated school, and more especially those offering less than a twelve-year course, teachers must teach in two or more subjectmatter fields. Seventy percent of those who completed one, two, or three-year curriculums at Iowa State Teachers College in 1928 and secured positions in high schools taught in three or more subjectmatter fields. Most of this group completed training courses in vocational subjects and taught in small schools where they were required to teach academic subjects. Of those who received degrees from this institution during the year named, thirty-seven percent taught in three or more subjectmatter fields. While this may not be a representative group, it does indicate a problem of organization from which the smaller high school cannot be divorced. We have no reason to assume that those individuals who are best qualified in personality and adaptability specialize in and teach but one subject, but it does seem that those who have made particular preparation for teaching a subject should give a better quality of service than the one who may be in charge of classes in two or more subjects outside his major field.

Again we face an instructional problem in the teaching of vocational subjects in consolidated schools. Teachers of these branches and especially those who have not qualified for a degree, have had a limited opportunity to equip themselves for teaching other subjects which will be expected of them. This naturally results in poor instruction in the academic subjects. The Smith-Hughes plan does not reach a significant proportion of schools. Conversely, many of our schools assign to those who have made ready to teach social science, mathematics, or physical sciences, classes in vocational subjects for which they are inadequately prepared. The apparent solution of this handicap is to organize a school of such size as to make possible the employment of competent teachers, discontinue the teaching of these subjects, or resign ourselves to a condition which can only be apologized for.

The introduction of socalled extracurriculum activities into the consolidated school program creates a situation that has a tendency to hamper the efficiency of instruction. Such activities call for the time and attention of teachers and the size of these schools places such duties upon instructors that their attention is detracted from instruction duties. Recently I learned of a consolidated school where one of the elementary grade teachers, in charge of two grades in one room, also was director of the school band and coach of the girls' basketball team. No doubt similar inconsistencies can be found in many places. This problem is made more difficult by the fact that if these activities are not provided for at the time rural children are at the schoolhouse during the day they cannot participate in them. Either the schedule for the school day should be lengthened to make provision for them, or the scope of the extracurriculum program must be confined to the time available.

Setting up a supervisory program for the consolidated school involves no principles which are different from other schools. The application of general principles will be modified by conditions in the school and I shall merely mention some of these conditions.

Reference has been previously made to a study of educational achievement in one of our counties in which a consolidated school was found to be below the standard of the rural schools. One of the most plausible explanations of this situation is the failure of the people of the community to give serious thought to the qualifications of their teachers and supervisors. Teachers with the minimum of training and certification have been employed and at salaries which all but exclude candidates for positions whose homes are not in the district. All but one of the eight teachers in this school were teaching their first year there. The superintendent was the only other teacher who had held a position for more than one year, and he, together with a majority of his staff, is now leaving for other fields. As long as the qualifications and tenure of teachers in this district or any other, are kept at the minimum, supervision of instruction will be an almost futile process.

Another instance represents one of our problems. The superintendent of a consolidated school spent one-half the school day in teaching, but observed his teachers at work not more than twice during the year. Ample time for classroom supervision was available but other matters of lesser value were allowed to absorb all his time, so that in practise these teachers received scarcely any assistance in the many classroom difficulties that came to them. The supervisor of the smaller school has less time for such duties than one in a larger school but he also has fewer teachers to assist. He must be administrator, supervisor, and teacher. The judicious principal or superintendent will rightly divide his time. Furthermore, concentration upon one or two needs which have become evident through a careful analysis of pupil progress will, if rightly followed from year to year, produce commendable results. Methods of teaching, materials of instruction used, pupil classification, grade norms, and standards of accomplishment should be carefully scrutinized. These projects should be sufficiently definite and tangible that they can be grasped and absorbed by the teachers in service.

The consolidated school has possibilities whose fulfillment depends upon the process of refinement and coordination following its establishment. To administrators and supervisors of rural education it is a challenge to turn out a product which is educationally fit.

PROVISION FOR AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM IN A RURAL SCHOOL

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In a sense our title is a misnomer. Wherever there are children there is activity. Every situation where there is group living is a situation where activity is going on and learning of some sort is taking place. Living means activity. Activity means learning. Why, then, discuss such a topic?

In the traditional school the teacher's effort was directed toward inhibiting as many of the children's activities as he could. As a matter of caution, or for the sake of keeping a semblance of peace, enterprises, especially of the older boys, retreated behind the geography texts. The teacher did not stop them. He did somewhat modify their outward manifestation. And he often caused a division of forces and a conflict of effort on the part of the children and himself.

The new school is a place which openly avows that it believes in children and their activities, that these activities are closely related to worthy learnings, and that the new school will ally its efforts with those of the children. By giving the children's efforts proper guidance it believes better learnings will result in terms of knowledges, skills, habits, meanings, attitudes, and appreciations that relate to a life that is full and worthy. The new school attempts, thus, to make children's activities contributory to a genuine educational program.

What are the conditions which make for such a program of learning through living? Does this theory mean a peculiar kind of equipment? Does it mean expensive equipment and a wealth of supplies? Does it prescribe that desks be movable? Does it mean that there is never to be found quiet study but instead a state of continuous excitement and commotion?

There is nothing innately wrong in a child's working at a desk that is fastened to the floor, providing that is the arrangement which best furthers what he should be doing; but, if a room is filled with such equipment there is obviously a limit to the kinds of activities children can carry on in that room. Is the new school's point of view a condemnation of fixed furniture or is it a plea for freedom and possibility of doing?

As one thinks of the rural schools scattered over these United States, as one recalls the factors that inevitably condition such schools in California, Kansas, New Jersey and Texas, one cannot sponsor a theory of activity work that is prescriptive as to kinds of buildings, desks, equipment, school grounds, and supplies.

The activity theory, itself, eliminates such a pronouncement of prescription. This theory maintains that the child learns something whenever he does anything. He learns what he does. Doing involves responding to situations that stimulate the doing. This responding brings with it an increased or decreased tendency to do likewise in a similar situation. This increase or decrease in the tendency to do constitutes the learning or change that takes place in the child.

These changes in tendency to do will obviously vary according to the things one does. And what one does varies, to some degree, according to what his environment permits and suggests. There is not much tendency, therefore, toward learning to skate on ice in Arizona or Texas.

Furthermore, we must remember that the psychologists are telling us that what a child tends to do at a given time is not wholly dependent upon what the environment suggests, for his nature is selective in its response to the things about it. This selective factor is due, in part, to what the child has previously done. Children's tendencies to do are, in other words, derived from what they have done, and what they have done is conditioned by the places where they have been. If we wish, then, to contemplate an activity program possible for all rural schools we cannot make provision for it by making lists of equipment and supplies or by drawing plans for the specific kind of a building needed.

What, then, shall guide us in the attempt to make provision for an activity program? What conditions are essential in all rural schools if we would attempt to guide children's learning through what they do?

Such an activity program really means setting up a method of living and doing things together. If such living and doing together be worthy there must be some *recognized and accepted objectives*. No group action is of much worth which lacks purpose recognized by those participating. In order to do together the members must all try to accomplish the same ends. This means that there must be a definite effort on the part of the school to recognize and define what it is trying to accomplish.

In this matter many schools at present fail. Sometimes teachers state to the children what is to be done, but such statements are not in terms of children's living. And there are varying degrees of acceptance of these statements. They do not come out of the children's experiences. They do not necessarily fit into what the children see as really worth doing.

Such recognition and statement by the school, as here proposed, of the things it is seeking to do does not come instantly. Not the first day of school, perhaps, not the first week can a group of children come to a recognition of some of the things they all really want to accomplish. Such recognition is gradual. The aim gradually emerges. As they do some things together and find worth in so doing, they glimpse possibilities of other more worthwhile things. Success in one undertaking gives courage and daring in attempting more difficult ones. In fact, it seems evident that so long as a group lives and works together its objectives are never completely stated. New possibilities are continually appearing.

The teacher of a school should keep in mind this *first* essential—the *continuous process of the group's recognizing and attempting to state its objectives*. No school can be successful in its attempt to carry on an activity program if it fails to develop this particular essential in group doing and learning.

A method of group learning through living and doing together involves a second very significant element essential in the progress of the work—*the development and use of group consciousness*. A degree of group consciousness has been present in every school where a number of children have been. Such consciousness inevitably develops. The point is that teachers have assumed that it was to be combated, that it was the foe of learning. Some of us can remember going to school where communication with one's neighbor was condemned. To write a note or to whisper was a sin. The good boy or girl was one who never by word, look, or gesture indicated that he knew there was another child in the room. And yet, this same school asserted that it was teaching children to write, to speak, and to read.

As children do things together they learn to know their combined strength, their abilities, their individual likes and dislikes, their ambitions. Such group consciousness can, if capitalized, become a tremendous force in carrying through attempted enterprises and in seeking possibilities for new, more worthy, more challenging undertakings. Group consciousness can be a source of dissipation of energy or, if rightly guided, may be the source of genuine effort in most commendable group action.

We, then, conclude that no teacher who would work by an activity program can dare neglect this second essential factor—the development and use of group consciousness.

This implies the third essential factor in successful group living and learning. This is *leadership*. No group can work together successfully without it. Unity of action implies it. Achievement and progress demand it. There must be one to lead the way.

This one is obviously the teacher. He is the one whom society entrusts with the education of its children. He is the one who is delegated by society to carry this responsibility. He is, if competent, one whom the children trust and respect because of his ability to lead them.

All this means that the teacher must have vision. He must see the meaning of what the children are doing in terms of the learnings that are taking place. The difficulty in many places where the activity program is being attempted is that the teachers themselves lack the vision. They do not see the significance of children's interests and tendencies. They do not see the relation between the things children tend to do and what is accepted as worthy learning. They do not understand that learning is linked up with doing. They do not see the subjectmatter of the school as an integral part of living richly and fully.

One reason for this state of affairs is that many teachers do not know richness and fullness of living. The obvious, the commonplace is but obvious and commonplace to them. It has little or no meaning. The limestone cliff is but so much limestone fraught with the possibility of becoming, if crushed, a troublesome white dust or capable, if in contact with running water, of making that water disagreeably hard. The flower by the roadside, the strata of sandstone, the magazine delivered by the postman, the fresh loaf of bread from the oven, convey no message about the wonder of their becoming. These are teachers who cannot read "the books in running brooks" nor do they understand anything of what the "flower in the crannied wall" is telling them. Such people are obviously unable to lead children in their tendencies to wade in the brooks, pick the flowers, and dig in the sand so that such activities may be but the beginnings of genuine adventures into the world of ideas and meanings.

A Teacher of long ago said, "I came that ye might have life and that ye might have it more abundantly." Abundant life involves meanings, significance, understandings in everything one does. Every teacher who comes into children's lives should be so filled with the meaning involved in the details of daily living that he can lead boys and girls into fullness of life. President Butler in his recent commencement address challenged his hearers in his initial sentence by asserting that "there are comparatively few men and women alive in the world although there are hundreds of millions of living human beings." A teacher with vision sees this distinction and looks upon his work as an opportunity to bring boys and girls into this fullness of life through helping them to develop the things that, at the time, attract and satisfy into things of far greater challenge and meaning.

This leadership implies a teacher who knows the ordinary tendencies of boys and girls, who sees the relation of these tendencies to worthy ideas and meanings, who knows the wonders of the commonplace world where the boys and girls live, who can translate commonplaces over into adventures in learning, one who himself, lives much and deeply and can show others the ways into such living and understanding—in fact, one who has vision of the possibilities for boys and girls to enter into life and can lead the way. Such leadership, with vision, is the third essential in attempting an activity program.

A fourth essential in such a program is *a working base* or group home. You say schools have always had this. Yes, there have been the schoolroom, the schoolhouse. But it has not always been a home, a working, living place. The "Penates" of childhood have not always been set up there.

Such a home does not necessarily need to be expensive or elaborate. In fact, there are many reasons why it were better not so. To anticipate and provide in advance for all the possible needs and comforts of children robs them of the adventure involved in being confronted with a genuine need and meeting it by their own efforts.

A member of a schoolboard this spring visited a classroom where he found the children using orange-box chairs they had made for their library corner. When talking with the supervisor later he mentioned these chairs and added that they would order some "nice" chairs, that they had plenty of money, and did not want their children sitting on orange boxes.

The far more important thing is to see that this home base is the children's to use, a place where they can live and do. We need, then, as a fourth essential, schoolrooms that are truly places where children can live and learn.

This, at once, suggests a fifth essential—*freedom to live and do*. This means freedom to use the schoolroom for activities that are challenging. A schoolroom has been known when children would not be permitted to move the pieces of furniture from the fixed stations and where to suggest using India ink to draw a floor map of the world which could be used in the study of the group, would be regarded as a desecration of property.

It also means freedom to deviate from the established routine if such deviation gives promise of better returns in children's learnings. Not so think some makers of school programs. It means freedom to bring in and use books and material other than the "adopted texts." It means possibility of deviation from any prescribed sequence in work. It means freedom to go out from the home base to the place where first-hand data can be secured if such data are really valuable. A school was recently found where the children were never free from dictated regime from morning to night. The recess consisted of a period in which the children "played" dictated games in the classroom. This was the rule although the school grounds were attractive and the neighboring mountains and valleys were full of legend, history, and physiographic stories. It was in this school that a geography lesson was heard where only the textbook material on glaciers was "recited" although the environment had many evidences of the visit of the glacier and a splendid glacial boulder was to be seen on the school ground.

We cannot talk of an activity program and at the same time shape the school work to fit a series of prescriptions and prohibitions. Some of the European countries have realized this better than we have and are now including school excursions as a fundamental part of learning. Learning implies developing habits, meanings, attitudes, knowledges, and appreciations relative to the things that make up life's experiences. Such learning involves living and doing in the midst of life's elements. And this implies the necessity of freedom to do as a fifth essential in an activity program.

All these five essentials imply and involve the sixth inclusive one. *An activity program means a program of living and doing worthwhile and challenging things* which are so because they, in turn, call for more worthy living and doing. The space allotted to this discussion does not permit the elaboration of what these worthy activities may be. They are of life and they belong to childhood. They are related to the valuable learnings which interpret life and give it effectiveness.

Provision for an activity program may then be summarized in this sixth essential—see that you make it possible for boys and girls to live and learn in a group life where they may carry through to greater significance the things that, at the time, seem challenging and that give promise of greater worth.

But why, someone may ask, should the title read "Provision for an activity program *in a rural school?* The obvious answer is that the group here present is a group interested in rural schools.

There is, however, a matter of greater significance in the title. The rural school has in it greater possibilities for such work. The environment is much more varied and, therefore, richer for school purposes. The environment is simpler in that its processes are less complicated with numbers. Social processes of the community are possible of comprehension because they can be contemplated as a whole. Family life still exists. Domestic activities are still carried on as a part of the child's experience. The physical environment has not, as a rule, been despoiled by man's steam shovels and concreting tendencies. Brooks still may be found. Fruit trees yet produce fruit. Pastures, meadows, and fields have existence. Then, too, heroes and history tales have local significance. The past may be cherished.

The teachers of rural schools, it would seem, have the finest opportunity to develop a worthy activity program because the child's world in a rural community can have a unity of setting which makes possible the development of real learning through living. Provision for such work calls for (1) the development by the group of recognized and accepted objectives, (2) the development and use of a fine group consciousness, (3) wise leadership guided by a vision of possibilities in teaching boys and girls, (4) a home base for living and learning together, (5) freedom to live and learn, and (6) a genuine program of living and doing worthwhile and challenging things.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Atlantic City, N. J., Feb. 23, 1930

A meeting of the Executive Committee to which several leaders in rural education were invited was called by the President, Miss Mabel Carney, Sunday afternoon, February 23, 1930. Miss Carney presented to the meeting for discussion the need of increased attention to the social and economic aspects of rural life and rural education in the United States. In view of the present situation in a number of important education movements, President Carney presented her plan to appoint a number of committees to study important aspects of rural education during the coming year. After considerable discussion the Executive Committee expressed approval of the appointment of the following committees in addition to the regular committees on nominations and resolutions: Committee on Publications; Committee on Cooperation with the National Education Association; Committee on Rural Secondary Education; Committee on Rural Child Welfare; Committee on Government Reorganization; Committee on Rural Teacher Training; Committee on Radio in Rural Schools; Committee on Rural Adult Education.

It was the sense of the Executive Committee and others in the group that special attention should be given by the committees to the study now being made on government reorganization as concerned with education, to the prospective study on teacher training in the United States, and to the study now being carried on of secondary education. The committees are expected to follow the progress of these various committees and studies in order to promote as far as possible the interests of rural education in each field represented.

Atlantic City, N. J., Feb. 25, 1930

The regular annual business meeting of the Department of Rural Education was held at Atlantic City, Tuesday, February 25, 1930, at 4 p. m. The reports of committees were read and formally accepted by the Department.

The retiring president, Miss Mabel Carney, asked for an expression of opinion on the part of the business meeting concerning the future of the various committees which she had appointed and reports from which had just been received. After considerable discussion it was moved and seconded that the committees be continued to work throughout the year and report at the 1931 meeting of the Department. Motion was carried.

The Committee on Publications was able to give only a tentative report owing to the enforced absence of the chairman, Dr. J. E. Butterworth.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was offered by Mr. Calhoun of Mississippi and adopted.

The report of the Committee on Nominations was presented by Miss Mary E. Howe of Detroit, Michigan. The following officers were nominated:

President, Miss Helen Heffernan, California.

Vicepresident, Mr. George Howard, North Carolina.

For member of Executive Committee to fill the term beginning 1930 and ending 1935, Miss Helen Hay Heyl, New York.

The Department accepted the report of the committee and the officers proposed were declared elected.

The meeting adjourned.

Department of School Health and Physical Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION was known as the Department of Child Study until July 13, 1911. See *Proceedings*, 1911:870. The Department of Child Study was created at the Asbury Park meeting, 1894:40. In July, 1924, the department was merged with the Department of Physical and Health Education under the name of the Department of School Health and Physical Education. See *Proceedings*, 1924:96.

The officers of the Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Jay B. Nash, Professor of Physical Education, School of Education, New York University, New York, N. Y.; *Vicepresident*, Mary E. Murphy, Director, Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, 848 N. Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, James E. Rogers, Director, National Physical Education Service, 315 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.; *Executive Committee*, William E. Burdick, State Director of Physical Education, 7 E. Mulberry St., Baltimore, Md. (Term expires 1931); Ethel Perrin, American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y., (Term expires 1932); F. W. Maroney, Director, Department of Health Education, Atlantic City, N. J. (Term expires 1933); N. P. Neilson, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Sacramento, Calif. (Term expires 1934). The Department meets once each year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1893: 615-678
1895: 944-950
1896: 893-937
1897: 870-916
1898: 929-959
1899: 1064-1097
1901: 758-771
1902: 737-759
1903: 817-847
1904: 803-843
1905: 755-781
1906: 711-713
1907: 925-951
1908: 999-1947
1909: 745-789
1910: 921-949
1911: 905-939
1912: 1141-1153
1913: 667-695
1914: 683-721
1915: 971-995
1916: 681-699
1917: 521-535
1918: 339-359
1919: 315-323
1920: 311-323
1921: 517-523
1922: 1085-1099
1923: 744-842
1924: 637-651
1925: 577-598
1926: 600-624
1927: 561-581
1928: 545-567
1929: 543-559

HOW BEST TO ADMINISTER THE SCHOOL HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND RECREATION PROGRAM

EDWIN C. BROOME, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

MY APPROACH to the subject will naturally be that of a superintendent of schools in a large city. In a large city every human and professional aspect of the problem is present. There is also the advantage of an administrative and supervisory staff of sufficient extent to insure that every item of the problem shall receive attention by qualified experts following a unified and thoroughly coordinated program. The fact that this ideal state of affairs exists in few, if any, large cities, makes it a more attractive center around which to group our arguments.

Any plan of health and physical education should properly be directed towards four objectives: (1) Correct information, frankly but tactfully conveyed; (2) proper health habits, firmly fixed by appropriate practises; (3) sane and wholesome attitudes, sedulously cultivated through proper instruction, good example, and abundant practise; (4) properly developed physiques.

1. Organization of the System

What form of organization is best calculated to realize these results? On this point the experts are not in entire agreement. A complete organization of physical and health education for a large city embraces six fields:

1. Physical training and corrective work
2. Recreation, including all athletics
3. Instruction in hygiene and physiology
4. Medical service
5. Nurse service, and health guidance and advising
6. Sanitary supervision of school property, equipment, and environment.

Some experts advocate the inclusion of all these activities in one department under a single director. Others would organize them under two coordinate departments, as follows: Numbers 1, 2, and possibly 3, under a department of physical and health education; and numbers 4, 5, 6, and possibly 3, under a department of medical and nursing service. Local conditions and size of school may control the policy in some measure, as well. Both plans are working well in large cities, but it would seem logical that all enterprises that contribute to the health of the children should be united in one department, under a single director responsible to the superintendent of schools.

One argument against the single department plan is that neither a physical trainer nor a physician can possess sufficient knowledge of the entire field to give it adequate supervision. That is true in the case of directors whose training has been confined to the narrow field of their major interest. If a director can be secured who has been broadly trained in the philosophy of education, child psychology, economics, sociology, educational administration and supervision, physical education and public health, and has common sense and qualities of leardership, it would not matter materially whether he held a degree in medicine or in physical education. Such a leader can intelligently direct the work of school physicans and nurses, as well as that of supervisors of physical training. It *is* essential that the director be an educator who can administer his department with the point of view of an educator.

This is the major consideration in the organization of health service. There are some minor considerations which deserve brief attention. One is the question of the fulltime or the partime school physician. There are advocates of both plans. The problem of cost enters at this point. It is difficult to secure competent and experienced physicians on fulltime for the salaries usually available; and it is more difficult to secure a sufficient appropriation to pay experienced physicians salaries that will compensate for the surrender of private practise. The difficulty is partially met in some large cities by the employment of several fulltime medical supervisors on relatively large salaries to direct the work of the other partime school physicians. Usually nurses are on fulltime service as they should be.

The term of employment is another subject to be considered. Probably the most approved practise is to employ doctors and nurses for twelve months, with a month's vacation. This plan provides health service for summer schools and vacation playgrounds, affords time for a sanitary survey of schools, for clinical service, and for service to children of preschool age so that their physical handicaps may be removed before they enter school.

The next item may or may not come logically under the heading of organization, but it is important. The entire recreational program, also all athletics, intra- and interschool, should be under the supervision of the department of physical and health education. The coaches should be staff men and women on staff salaries. This is one effective means of curbing athletic hysteria and of providing that athletics will assume their proportionate place as a part of the school program. Another means is that of having a program of supervised games for all pupils, in grades above the sixth at any rate, as a required part of the school work. Two hours a week through the school year for each pupil would be a reasonable requirement. This work should be supervised by the regular instructors in physical education, and should be evaluated, as arithmetic and language are evaluated, and credited for graduation. It is quite as important in the general education of the child.

No organization for health education is complete without adequate eye, ear, nose and throat, and dental clinics. These are costly, and, where necessary, the expense might be shared by the board of health with the board of education, provided a workable plan of cooperation for their control can be devised. This plan is justifiable on the ground that such facilities should be at the service of all children who require it, whether in public school or not.

A recent development has appeared in the form of a plan of periodic health examinations for teachers. The effectiveness of a system of physical and health education will be greatly furthered if the teachers in the schools are examples of good health, practise sound health habits, and exercise the commendable practise of a periodic inventory of their own physical systems. This is a good way of making the teachers sensitive to the value of health as an educational and life problem. In our city we have had a plan of periodical health examinations for teachers for four years. The examinations are required of all from clerk to superintendent. They are made by men and women physicians on our medical staff.

Some progressive cities have provided for a mental hygienist or psychiatrist in the organization. Not being a specialist, I am unable to express a valuable opinion on the desirability of this addition. We all consider the psychological examination as necessary for the examination and classification of a typical child. The field of psychiatry or mental hygiene is so uncertain that we are not yet ready to condemn a schoolboard as unprogressive which has not added a psychiatrist to its staff. In fact, it is practically hopeless to expect to secure an appropriation sufficient to employ a first-class psychiatrist from public funds. Moreover, in the larger cities there are mental clinics in hospitals where mental cases can be handled at little or no cost, and receive much better treatment than could be received from a second-rate psychiatrist employed by the board of education. Perhaps the establishment of mental hygiene service will be the next step forward.

2. Administration of a Program of Physical and Health Education

The experts again are not entirely in agreement as to what is the best plan of administration of a program of physical and health education. It would be difficult to prove how much of this lack of agreement is due to hitherto unsurmountable factors in local situations, some traditional and some political, and how much is born of sincere conviction. There is rather general agreement, however, that the entire program of health, physical education, and recreation for school children should be financed and controlled by the board of education, and directed by the superintendent of schools; and not partly by the board of education, partly by the board of health, and partly by welfare and other well-intentioned, but precariously supported organizations. The latter plan, which is so prevalent in the cities of the country, causes conflict of authority, duplication of effort and expense, entrusts the vital responsibility of the health of children to many whose appointment is due more to influence than to merit, and results in a total cost to the community considerably in excess of the expense of the same service under single control.

We are aware of the fact that in certain cities where dual control of school health service, or triple control of health service, physical education, and recreation exists, there is effective cooperation between the board of education and the other departments of the city. In several states, notably in Pennsylvania, the plan of dual control of the health service is fixed by statute. But we are expected to be advocates of plans which we believe to be correct in principle, and not apologists for plans which may work tolerably well under tactful administration, but which are basically unsound, and owe their persistency to statutory mandate or to the influence of local tradition.

One of the most important, but difficult problems in the administration of a program of physical and health education is that of convincing all the teachers that the physical and health program is a vital part of the educational plan, and not an appendage; that it is not only as important as any other subject of the curriculum, but is more important than any other subject of the curriculum, and should receive more time, and as skilful treatment. If it should ever become my good fortune to build a curriculum for a school system of a newly organized community, a systematic program of physical and health education would be the center of the curriculum around which the rest would be built. The health program would commence before school age with preschool clinics and health advising in the homes. It would proceed by carefully graded stages throughout the school course. It would embrace physical exercises, including corrective work, health service, health education, recreation, and organized games and athletics, each feature varying from time to time in its proportion of attention according to the age of the children. Success in physical exercise, improvement in physique, knowledge of the facts and principles of hygiene, and the practise of good health habits, would be definite determinants in promotion from grade to grade. Under such a plan it is conceivable that a boy might fail of promotion for cigarette smoking, neglecting to clean his teeth, or other practises detrimental to his health.

Perhaps even some of the older established communities will soon be courageous enough to strike out boldly on such a course, and give health its proper place in the plan of public education.

Such a program will cost money—much more than the American people have yet seen fit to expend in the interest of the health of their children. A schoolboard that has been willing for years to spend $25 a pupil for instruction in Latin has as yet been unable to find more than $5 a year per pupil on the health program of its high-school students. To carry forth such a program also will require a change in our plan of teacher training, providing for the thorough preparation of the intending teacher in physical and health education.

WHAT IS THE BEST SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAM AND HOW BEST TO ADMINISTER IT?

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The best school health program will depend upon, and secure the following phases of opportunity, service, instruction, and administration:

1. "The Summer Roundup," or its effective equivalent in a community campaign for the discovery and correction of the remediable health defects of children of preschool age, so that they may begin school life ready and fit for the best that the school can give them; so that they may be free to live, free to grow, free to develop, and free to make the best use of and achieve the best possible results from their educational opportunities.

2. Periodic health examinations should be made of all school children annually, if possible. This examination should be made by physicians. This should be considered primarily the privilege and function of the family physician, if the home can pay for this service.

If the home cannot secure the health examination by the family physician, then the best possible health examination or inspection should be made by the school physician, and if sufficient medical service is not available teachers should make the best possible health inspection.

3. The program of measures for the correction of the remediable health defects and handicaps should follow closely upon the health examinations and inspections. The responsibility for the correction of these health defects which are discovered, and which are capable of being corrected wholly, or in part, is not primarily a responsibility of the school, but this falls upon the homes and the parents, and depends upon the cooperative services of the family physician, health officials, health centers, clinics, hospitals, and the available health and social organizations of the community.

4. In the next place, there should be daily health inspection of pupils at school (1) for the prevention and control of communicable diseases, and (2) to prevent the attendance at school and participation in school activities of pupils who for any reason are at the time not fit in health and condition to undertake the school tasks.

5. Of very great importance in the list of essentials for a satisfactory school health program is the school plant, with all the factors in the surroundings. An uptodate school provides a healthful environment. The schoolhouse with its surroundings should be sanitary and attractive. It should be healthful not only when built, but also in its maintenance and use.

6. The school which is or should be a house of health maintains conditions in school administration and programs which are in the highest degree favorable to child welfare. This hygiene of instruction will provide, then, healthful procedures in methods and materials of instruction; in arrangement of programs; length of school days; forms of examinations and tests; methods of grading and promotion; arrangement and supervision of recesses; re-

quirements of home study; frequency and length of vacations; and in health, personality, and influence of teachers.

7. Abundant and complete contribution to health of body, mind, personality, and character should be made by a rational, educationally sound program of physical education in the school. This requires (a) well equipped playgrounds, athletic fields, and emergency spaces called gymnasiums, with full utilization of all available natural outdoor facilities; and (b) well qualified, wise teachers and supervisors, who know how, by skilful guidance, to help children and youth to find the maximum of satisfying and constructively beneficial experiences with the minimum of restrictive control.

8. Health education, if successful, will be embodied in and result from a continuous, carefully planned, and supervised program of educationally sound influences which encourage and stimulate children to practise and establish the skills and habits of healthful living under conditions reasonably favoring health behavior in the school, the home, and the community.

Conscious provision for health education should be made each year, each month, each week, and each day, in the school life of the child. But this plan of instruction is not successful unless the child grows naturally into habits, attitudes, and knowledge of physical, mental, emotional, and character health without much direct consciousness of personal health, and without special prominence of health teaching in the program of the school.

While health teaching, then, is given a definite place in the program of the school, it is increasingly apparent that health cannot be successfully taught in two or three periods assigned to this subject during the week. If such special periods are devoted to health instruction, and they are still necessary in most schools, this time is given profitably to the discussion of and emphasis upon ideas and applications in the field of health which have been brought to the interest and attention of children at other times during the day and week.

9. The school health program is best administered by:

1. A principal or superintendent who has full and clear understanding of what a firstclass school health program involves.
2. A well unified and coordinated program of health conducted and administered by the *school authorities,* so as to secure educational values and results to the fullest extent, always, of course, with health procedures approved by the constituted health authorities.
3. Teachers, primarily and definitely, but under the sympathetic guidance of an efficient adviser or supervisor of health education.
4. An administration which is interdepartmental.

10. Essential to a complete school health program contributing successfully to the wholeness of the daily life experiences of the school child is the integration and coordination of the program of experiences in the school with those in the home and the rest of the community. All of the experiences of the school child should be favorable to health and education; they should all be considered as belonging to the curriculum.

11. The school health program in a city or state department of education, if administered in a department or division with physical education, and this seems desirable and expedient in most school systems, should be guided by a director who has the best available combination of elements of understanding and practical judgment regarding the three phases of the comprehensive program. He should be either:

1. A physician with a year or more of training in educational theory and practise, and in the principles and technics of health service, health education, and physical education in the schools, or
2. An experienced school executive, with at least a year of special training in the various phases of health and physical education, or
3. A person with a Ph. D. degree who has majored in health and physical education and who has had thorough preparation in the principles and practises of general education.

12. Finally, the best school health program with best administration requires adequate fractions of school funds applied to the various phases of health service, instruction, and administration. The money for the various phases of school health work mentioned in this analysis should approximate, if it does not reach, ten percent of the entire educational budget.

PROBLEMS IN SCHOOL HEALTH EDUCATION AND THEIR SOLUTION—ABSTRACT

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Problems within the field of health education are manifold. Called the most inexact of the biological sciences, it presents problems of amazing complexity. It will be the purpose of this paper to discuss two of them.

First: should definite and specific health instruction be given within the curriculum? This problem is a vital one and quite fundamental and yet there is no unanimity of opinion on it. Even the relatively small body of professional health educators are uncertain as to its answer.

Many have thought and are still thinking in terms of correlation. They want health correlated with other subjects rather than taught as a specific entity. There is little doubt but what health should ramify throughout the entire curriculum. All teachers should feel a responsibility for teaching health wherever it can gracefully be done. Such a philosophy and such efforts toward correlation are commendable. There is a wealth of health material that can be taught in science, home economics, civics, and biology.

However, correlation is not enough. Health instruction needs to be specific and particular, relying little on the generalities of other subjectmatter areas to solve health problems.

The issue is clear. Shall there or shall there not be an establishment of a specific and definite course in health instruction? The affirmative answer was given more solid backing in June, 1930, at a conference of health educators meeting at Sayville, Long Island. The minutes of that conference, published at a later date, will show the principle of teaching health through correlation *plus* a specific course to be the recommended plan.

The second problem is: What are the desirable relationships between health education and physical education? It is quite apparent that their relations are not yet fully decided. Some believe quite firmly, that for public school purposes, the alliance is natural and wholly desirable. There are many others, however, who refuse to accept such a combination. Several years have passed since the present terminology of health and physical education first appeared in connection with schools, college departments, and convention sections and yet a fair question may be raised as to whether or not the setup is quite largely a paper one. We have tacitly agreed that the broad and enormously important work of health education in the public schools should be done along with, and, in many instances, by the same person who is responsible for physical education. By complacently setting up a name uniting health education and physical education does not mean that both will go forward to the best interests of each. There are many persons in each of the two fields who look with disdain bordering on contempt at the other, and would with the greatest reluctance admit a relationship.

Now it has been proposed that, for public school purposes, the physical educator, being already on the job, is the most logical teacher of the health instruction. This position implies that the physical educator is, if the union of health and physical education is to be taken seriously, to be given the health teaching in addition to his other duties. It is around this point that the whole question of the alliance of the two fields revolves. Not everyone believes that this arrangement is a desirable one. Many, however, agree to its fundamental soundness and advance many reasons why health instruction should be, generally, in the hands of the physical education teacher.

The parade has started in favor of the alliance and it will be hard to stop. The important thing now is to perfect the program. One hears comments from those interested primarily in health education that the general run of physical education teachers or coaches are not qualified to teach health, that they have no time for it if they were qualified, and that wherever it has been attempted it has had to play second fiddle to athletics and other recreative activities. From some interested primarily in physical education come remarks to the effect that health education is yet too intangible, that nothing much is known about how to teach health, and that most health work should be done by medically trained people anyway. There are many objections to overcome and much work to be done before all concerned can be convinced that the union is a feasible one.

Several opportunities for change present themselves in this connection.

1. Physical education teacher-training institutions must incorporate a solid substantial training in health education. A cursory course in hygiene

will not do. There must be given to physical education students a thorough training in hygiene, public health, child care, materials of health education, immunology, nutrition, administration of health education, and the teaching of health.

2. Physical educators now in the field must study, learn about, and take an active interest in health education. The large body of physicians, public health officers, sanitarians, nutritionists, and others vitally interested in seeing the school health program developed to its fullest are now pressing and will continue to press the physical educator until the latter takes an active interest. Directors of physical education who have heretofore been devoting nine-tenths of their time to the promotion of athletics must balance their time and budget so that health education receives its share of attention.

3. The same may be said for health education. There is as much lack of understanding and indifference among the health educators toward physical education as there is in the other camp. Enroled among physicians, nurses, biologists, and specialists in health education are many whose whole conception of physical education is a football game or perhaps a gymnastic exercise.

4. Physical education programs in the public schools need to be revised to permit definite time for health instruction. The writer saw a very simple and very fine alliance during the past year in a small city system where boys had physical education on Monday and Wednesday, girls on Tuesday and Thursday, and all joined in various classrooms under the same activity instructors on Friday for their health instruction.

5. There is no need for the health education people who are now specialists in that field alone to gain the idea that the affiliation with physical education will drive them out of business. There will always be a need for specialists. There will always be places where health education will be developed unrelated to physical education and there will always be places where administrators will hire health educators first and physical educators second. But because the public school superintendents in small cities cannot hire two people for similar jobs, the large share of health education in schools must be done by physical educators if it is done at all.

6. Summer schools and extension divisions of colleges and universities should make available courses in health and physical education which will be inviting to teachers, coaches, nurses, principals, and superintendents now in the field. Pity the superintendent with the enthusiasm for the combined program who does not know how to administer or supervise it.

7. Wherever the alliance of health education and physical education has been taken seriously, a more scientific piece of work has been done in the area of correctives. Physical education without the benefit of medical and nursing assistance has made a farce of corrective and restrictive work. Physical education needs an understanding of the health service principles in health education and a happy cooperation between the medical interests is needed over a larger area than merely the annual health examination or the treatment of athletic injuries.

There are undoubtedly other things which need to be done. First of all, however, we must be assured that the union is a wise one, economically and educationally sound, and physically possible. Once possessed with a conviction that the alliance is the best solution to the public school health problem, then all hands ought to mutually cooperate for the sake of the health and physical education of the children of the nation.

A MODERN PUBLIC SCHOOL PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM—ABSTRACT

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What is physical education? What are its objectives? Upon the basis of these answers it will be possible to outline a modern public school physical education program.

Briefly, physical education is the administrative or teaching division of education that is concerned with the vigorous total body activities as distinct from the manual, musical, or scientific activities and from the "tool subjects." The phrase, "total body," is used because in the activities of physical education, more than in any other activities the total body is functioning; that is, the muscular mechanisms are functioning as well as the neuroeffective mechanisms.

Physical education illustrated—A conception of presentday physical education may be gained by visualizing the activities on the playground together with the aims of a trained leader directing these activities. The word "playground" must not be used in a narrow sense. It must be used to symbolize all of the places where total body activities may be organized. It must symbolize the schoolyard, the gymnasium, the swimming pools, the vacant lot, the camp, the playroom, the backyard, the roof garden, the garden court, or any space indoors or out-of-doors in which activities such as dancing, swimming, selftesting activities, athletics, or plays and games may be carried on. The gymnasium and the indoor playroom should never be considered as anything more than bad weather institutions. In connection with the gymnasium we should realize the importance of adequate showers, dressing rooms, administrative offices, examination rooms, conference and classroom units. It is highly important also that the conception of the physical education plant be enlarged to include not only these facilities of the gymnasium, but all of the outdoor space which is available for physical activity.

Total body activity—In order to visualize physical education activities and in order to gain a conception of the possible values in them, it is necessary that we have a clear conception of what is meant by the term, "total body activity." "Total body" carries with it all of the implications which have formerly been listed under physical activities and mental activities.

The term, "total body activity," is used in an effort to sound the death knell to the distinction which is so often made between these activities.

Thus, it is seen that physical education differs very little from other types of education except that, because of the peculiar type of activities involved, certain specific objectives are stressed. What are these specific objectives?

Organic power—The basis of all education, of all life, in fact, rests upon power in the physical organism. Life, as we know it, cannot exist apart from this organism, and a badly functioning human organism is very definitely a drawback to the fullness of life. Organic development might be thought of by some as a synonym with the word, health, or physical fitness, or the ability of the human body to perform tasks.

Organic power rests upon three things, all of which have to do with the objectives of physical education and, therefore, have a vital relationship to a modern program of physical education.

1. It is one of the basic biological laws that use or exercise, up to a certain degree, strengthens the human organs; whereas in a machine use wears out the various parts. Hence we see that the human body gains power through exercise. The human organism begins to build this power in early years, and it is built well up to the period of late adolescence.

It is through physical education activities—big-muscle activities—that the individual with his hereditary possibilities can gain power to resist fatigue, to sustain effort, to endure.

2. Another element in connection with building power, or what we might call "health," is in connection with removing strains and drains from the individual. By drains we mean physiological drains which may poison the body and hence set up an abnormality which interferes with the organic processes. The remedy for these strains, however, has to do with the medical profession.

There are types of emotional drains, such as worry, fear, anger, which likewise interfere with the body processes. We know, for example, that fear stops the flow of the digestive secretions and hence stops digestion.

Physical education has a place in relieving the individual from these strains by giving him interest-driven activities which monopolize his attention. The conditions of joy, happiness, or intense interest are ways in which we can combat worry, fear, anger.

Because of the intense interest of the child in properly selected physical education activities, this phase of the school curriculum may become very important in connection with the removal of strain that has proved to be a real handicap to health.

3. Not only must the individual gain power through activity and by relieving strains and drains, but the individual must maintain reasonable health habits. These habits must be centered around a balanced program of eating, sleeping, exercising, and the various other phases of nutrition and cleanliness. The small child will carry out these health habits only when he sees in them a direct contribution to some form of personal achievement. The small child is interested in achieving in physical education in his group and hence can be made to see the importance of health habits.

A modern program of physical education selects activities to make up its curriculum based upon its contribution to organic development, that is, activities must involve the large muscles. Hence activities which have to do with running, jumping, climbing, etc., will dominate the program. In the early years of the elementary school the small child needs big-muscle activity from five to seven hours daily if he is to lay down an organic base which will stand the wear and tear of life. Therefore, it is necessary that activities taught in the school be practised outside of the school. Activities will be practised only when the child is interested in them. Hence, the old program of calisthenics must be discarded and the new interest driven program must be substituted.

It is upon the basis of research in the above phase of health that a vigorous fight against long hours of home study has been made. The child is inactive from four to five hours a day in the schoolroom. Many school systems have called upon children to do from one to two hours of home study. This home study puts a particular strain upon the eye and others of the small muscle groups. These home hours should be primarily devoted to big-muscle activity as a carry-over of a modern program of physical education.

In this modern school program, health or the building of organic capacity cannot be considered the main objective of education or of life. The question is not what degree of health do you possess, but, what are you doing with it? This involves *impulsive development,* or in other words, the will to do this thing or that. Physical education activities from the early years are highly cooperative activities. In the team games of the preschool child there is an interrelationship of individuals. There are certain rules and regulations to be followed. Some members play fair—others do not. Some members are good team workers—others are not.

These social interrelationships which exist in children's games are largely of the same type of social relationships which exist in the business or the political world of today. Therefore, a modern public school physical education program should involve group activities which give a large latitude for cooperative action. They should, in addition to this, be charged with the elements of interest. If charged with the elements of interest, they will be charged with the elements of joy.

The solution of the crime problem today rests upon the ability of the community to provide stimulating situations in which children may act. Every one of the children's games has an "it," an "it" which catches you or poisons you, or puts you out of the game. Biologically, the human race has always been playing with "its." In the early day, to be caught by the "it" meant "death," and to catch the "it" meant a "feast."

The city of today has, in many instances, removed the legitimate thrills from the child's life and the child has invented his own "its." The "it" is represented by the corner grocery man whom the child teases, or too often the police. Many of the child's criminal activities are entered into for the thrill which comes from pitting his ingenuity against the representative of organized society represented by the police. Goodness must be made interesting and this has not always been the case in the past. One of the very important ways of giving a child a thrill for which he is biologically hungry is to provide him with athletic games which at a certain age become the heart of the physical education program.

In summary, then, a modern physical education program should center around activities which build in the individual organic power. This involves vigorous physical activities conducted under a condition where there are no organic strains or drains which may cause an injury to the individual. This organic development must be made the basis for the teaching of health habits in order to maintain organic efficiency. Topping this building of organic capacity comes the building of impulsive power, in order that this organic capacity may be used to provide the individual with a larger quantity of the "fulness of life."

WHAT PLACE SHOULD GIRLS' ATHLETICS HAVE IN THE PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM?—ABSTRACT

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History is a factor in the public attitude held toward athletics today. Athletics have passed through three periods:

1. *The period of opposition*—The school authorities opposed athletics. Students played but with such disregard of regulations that the school was forced to recognize athletics.
2. *The period of toleration*—The school attempted to protect its good name without assuming authority or interest. Assistance of the alumni was enlisted.
3. *The period of cooperation*—The school assumed control by hiring outside coaches and assembling star teams. Keen competition, huge stadiums, and crowds of spectators characterized this period.

Let us hope that we have entered upon a fourth epoch which may be called, *The Period of Educational Aministration of Athletics.*

As the prejudices against activities for girls were gradually overcome, women entered the field of athletics. What has the girl of today inherited from athletics? The answer divides itself into positive and negative results. Through the leadership of many colleges, universities, and educators in the field, the positive results have been conserved and emphasized, so that the girl of today inherits:

1. The joy of play and her inherent right to participate in play
2. The value in the development of skills and team play
3. The opportunity to participate in activities, particularly adapted to her needs
4. The social and carry-over values of a diversified program of activities.

As a result of the opposition and toleration periods of athletics in schools, coupled with the tendency of commercial agencies to capitalize athletics, the negative results are still strong. The girl today then also inherits:

1. The public idea of "win at any cost"
2. Intense training for skill to win causing over-exertion
3. The encouragement to participate in games unsuited to her ability
4. The lack of public interest in carry-over sports, commercialism, including unwholesome publicity and notoriety
5. The anti-social tendencies fostered by the above items.

What shall be done with this condition? Most of the educational values found in the positive values could be completely destroyed by influences of the negative results. On the other hand, conscientious elimination of playing to win, training for skill, keen competition, and recognition of ability may leave the athletic program so spineless that it becomes almost valueless.

The two greatest obstacles interfering with educational programs of athletics are the antiquated, formalized systems, and usurping of privileges by one varsity team. The correction of the first problem lies in the hands of the school authorities; the second problem involves the community and the school. Athletic teams are largely controled by the town, and the principal gains publicity, cooperation, and community approval through them. An awareness on the part of administrators of the place of athletics in education and a judicious conversion of the community to this view will not seriously jeopardize the prestige of the school. In the last analysis the parent is more concerned with the benefits his individual child receives from the school than with community advertising through school teams. A fond parent beams upon his child as a team member, and justly. When participation has been extended to all, through a physical education program of athletics, that beam of satisfaction will be multiplied by the added number of pupils taking part. It is logical to educate the community to a sane, well-administered program of athletics.

During the above discussion, the use of an intramural program has been recommended. Some serious mistakes have been made in an endeavor to encourage an intramural program as a panacea for the evils of misdirected athletics. There is no magic in the word, "intramurals" which will suddenly eliminate overexertion, unwholesome rivalry, games unfitted to girls, exploitation for spectators, and sensational publicity. Intramurals *must* be measured by the same educational principles employed for all athletics. They should be the outgrowth of athletics taught in the regular program of physical education.

It is well to remember that one picked varsity team usurping all the privileges, and a heterogeneous mixture of girls playing with no regard for degree of skill or progress are two extremes to be avoided. As programs in junior and senior high schools improve, the college senior will be completing her tenth year of athletic experience. Shall we keep her on the fundamentals of the program—the A, B, C's,—or shall we expect achievement consistent with time and experience? There is a difference between potato or peanut races at a picnic and serious skilled participation in a team game. The unbridled acceptance of "play days" needs careful experimentation. Play days may be educationally constructive and fruitful or they may be hopelessly maudlin and ineffectual as a means of helping girls to live fully. Again, there is no magic in a name; a "play day" means nothing unless it is planned, executed, and judged by educational standards. Many methods must be used to overcome the effects of community owned teams with the policy of win at any cost. Extra safeguards are necessary to tide the period of infection, but when the fever of public excitement has subsided, perhaps we may look forward to competition for girls such as the Englishman enjoys—a matching of abilities, not a matching of scores.

There is a wide field of study open to women in analyzing games and individual sports into skills, arranging tests, and providing suitable means of classifying girls into homogeneous groups. This type of program takes planning, organization, and careful guidance, but it is so great an improvement over the old formal regime, or the "throw a ball out and let them play" type of activity that it is worth the effort. Suppose each class of high-school and college seniors were asked the question, "What game will you enjoy playing ten years from now?" Would the answer be hockey or basketball? Do you play team games for your recreation? Great care should be taken to allow time for learning individual sports so that each girl may take into adult life the capacity to enjoy play.

Can we as leaders choose a middle ground? Is there justification in keeping teams intact for the sake of skill in team play? What degree of competition is advisable for teams and individuals? Is interschool competition on any basis always to be condemned for girls? These questions and many others need to be answered as a result of scientific study.

THE NEED FOR SCHOOL HEALTH EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

ROBERT G. PATTERSON, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, OHIO PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION, COLUMBUS, OHIO

There are two health education processes at work in any community—the school and the community. Each one is indispensable to the other. An attempt on the part of one to ignore the other will end in failure. Maximum results can only be obtained by both working together.

Our schools are undergoing great changes in the method and content of health education programs. These changes are affecting teacher training, elementary grades, high schools, and colleges. Such changes will ultimately affect the community in a profound way.

Interest in health on the part of the community has increased enormously. This is seen in activities of diverse kinds—the public press, public organizations, and the government. The school health program will play a large part in directing this interest along sound lines.

Much confusion in the whole field exists concerning objectives because of the lack of a clearly recognized leadership. Such leadership will be required to possess a grasp of both aspects of the problem—the school and the community. When this leadership becomes recognized many of our present problems will have been solved through the team-work developed between the physician, the nurse, the dentist, the psychiatrist, the nutrition worker, the director of physical education, the public health administrator, and the social worker.

Physical education has in it the possibilities for such leadership. With adjustments in emphasis in terminology and possession of the intimate knowledge of the entire field it should be able to assume such leadership.

EDUCATIONAL RECREATION FOR THE USE OF LEISURE—ABSTRACT

JAMES EDWARD ROGERS, DIRECTOR, NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION SERVICE, PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK, N. Y.

To train for the wise and wholesome use of leisure is one of the seven aims of education. The leisure time problem becomes more acute with modern industrialism, with the shorter working day involving speed and strain. Therefore the public schools are providing indoor and outdoor facilities such as gymnasiums, playfields, sportfields, and recreation centers under trained leadership for the education of the child, youth, and adult in avocational activities.

Municipal recreation systems are also cooperating in training our children in wholesome play habits for the wise use of leisure and in giving opportunities to adults through outdoor and indoor recreation facilities for the constructive use of their free time.

Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle, president of the National Education Association, has recognized the importance of adult education that will take care of this important phase of modern education. She writes, "Increasing leisure has created challenging problems and opportunities. The hours wisely used may prove one of the greatest blessings of our times, yield a large dividend in buoyant health, happier homes, more generous education, more effective citizenship, increasing economic effectiveness, and nobler characters. Unwisely used this leisure may have consequences of the utmost seriousness."

Recognizing the need for the enrichment of adult life, the National Education Association is taking the initiative and President Pyrtle has appointed a national commission and state commissions to promote plans for avocational education.

Joy Elmer Morgan, editor of *The Journal of the National Education Association,* has written some splendid articles on this subject. In that powerful, stimulating editorial entitled the "Leisure of Tomorrow," January, 1930, he well states the need for education, considering seriously the problem of the wise use of leisure.

AN EDUCATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

RACHAEL O. YAW, SUPERVISOR OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, EAST CLEVELAND, OHIO

In the true sense of the term "physical education program" there are four phases of the subject to be considered: First, a program in physical-training activities or the developmental program in big-muscle activities; second, a program in the training for character, morals, and manners; third, a program in teaching health or hygiene; fourth, a program in the control of health conditions. The most important of these phases is the first, the developmental program in the training through big-muscle activity. This last objective is the source of all the educational objectives in the whole program.

The ideal type of physical education program, as sometimes seen in the better school systems, is one that has a definitely planned course of study composed of suitable activities from the kindergarten through the elementary school, that is adapted to the social and educational needs of the children, that is allotted ample time and space in which to function, that is properly integrated with other subjects, that has the sympathetic endorsement of the superintendent and principal, that has expert leadership in the person of a skilled supervisor, and one that has a classroom teacher well-trained for the performance of the task at hand.

In order to bring about success in the inauguration of this program, the administrator must plan an organization of the school curriculum which will assure him a realization of worthwhile educational values through the formulation and function of a series of definite, well-selected activities. The educational values to the children, gained through the experiences of this physical education program, together with those educational values accruing from other subjects in the school curriculum, must comprise the total aim of all the educational objectives for that system. Both the administrative and teaching procedures in a particular school system must be based on this plan if the desired results are to be accomplished. Naturally, the organization of the program will vary in the several types of schools owing to such differences as children's needs, social needs, financial possibilities, size of the system, buildings, playgrounds, equipment, etc., but the fundamental principles governing the function of any program will be essentially the same.

There are many important factors to be considered in determining the type of program to be selected. The large or small city system and the village school system can provide every item in the model program, but, for various reasons, the county superintendent will have to modify his program in many ways. A county school unit in Ohio will show different stages of school progress according to its geographical location. A typical unit in county schools may be composed of several and varied types of school districts, necessitating different organizations, such as village, centralized, consolidated, partial and wholly rural, i. e., consisting all or part of one-room schools.

The success of any program in physical education will depend largely on the respective attitudes of the professional leaders within the school toward its organization. The superintendent should be thoroughly in accord with the program. He should support the idea to his board or boards, as the case may be; he should employ a competent supervisor; organize the course of study; classify and grade the children; allot ample time and space for both inside and outside school activities; provide and care for the equipment; and encourage his classroom teachers to prepare themselves professionally for the work.

The county supervisor of physical education should be a good leader, a person of excellent scholastic ability, welltrained in the skill and technic of his subject and he should show a fair degree of administrative ability. The program of activities he offers should follow the professional thought of the day. He should advise the superintendent and his assistants as well as the special teachers under his jurisdiction in matters of contact as well as in those of skill and technic. The classroom teacher is the pivotal person in the whole organization. He should set about to prepare himself professionally for the task at hand because when all is said and done the actual responsibility for the work rests on him. He is responsible for the program of instruction. He will have help, of course, from the supervisor or from the special teacher but any plan that takes the children apart from the regular teacher is very likely to become impersonal and uncorrelated with the remainder of the work. The teacher's attitude toward the program will play a vital part in its success.

SAFETY EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

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If we had discovered that during the last year there had been an increase of thirteen percent in the mortality from diphtheria or tuberculosis, we would be very much alarmed. Fortunately this has not been true but recent studies indicate that this is precisely what has happened with motor vehicle fatalities. In a single year they have grown thirteen percent and in the last three years twenty-five percent.[1]

However, in the mounting toll of street and highway accidents in the country one gleam of comfort may be derived. *In the last three years while adult fatalities from motor vehicle accidents have increased twenty-five percent, those of preschool children ten percent—the deaths of children of school age have actually shown a ten percent decrease.*[2]

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[1] National Safety Council. *Accident Facts,* 1930.

[2] *Ibid.*

These facts are unmistakable. Lives of children of school age are being saved. School children are learning to avoid accidents. Moreover, if we examine the accident situation during the last seven years and fit a line by the method of least squares to the accident curve, we find that if accidents to school children had increased as rapidly as they have for adults, over 6000 more children would have been killed this year than was actually the case.

How can we account for this apparently successful campaign that is being waged against child accidents? A large number of factors have been operative in the field of child safety. The work of police departments in improving traffic conditions, improved fire regulations and fire fighting, the expansion of the playground and camping movement—all of these and many others have made marked contributions. But it has been the program of safety education in the schools that has had the most significant part to play. In spite of the many safeguards we can provide to protect children on streets, in homes, in public places, we are dependent in many ways upon the schools to cultivate good safety habits and attitudes among the children.

How can we organize a safety program for the elementary schools? In general the program may be divided into two parts, both of them overlapping, first, the protection or safeguarding activities and, second, the education activities. Under the first we might include the following activities: (1) The protection of children on their way to school; (2) the protection of children in or about school buildings.

Safety education as a part of health education is basic in the curriculum of the elementary schools. For after all of what avail are the other fundamental tools of learning if an individual is killed, unhealthy, or seriously injured in childhood. It is therefore important that a series of safety lessons suitable to the grade level be given in all elementary schools. Our studies have tended to show that the following methods are to be preferred in the kindergarten or elementary school.

1. Actual practise exercises in performing some activity in a safe way such as crossing the street, sharpening a pencil, using sharp shears.
2. Mild experiences and adventures with certain dangers.
3. Demonstrations of the effects of wrongdoing or wrong action. Studies have tended to show that when we can demonstrate to pupils the serious effect of wrongdoing and the satisfaction that comes from right action, this method is far more effective than other positive or negative suggestions.
4. Dramatizing and using safety stories. These appear to be singularly effective in teaching good safety habits. Little plays or stories on such subjects as "How We Help the Policeman," "A Narrow Escape," "The Playground," "Winter Fun," or "Learning to Swim," appear to be very interesting and useful to children.
5. Safety projects. These have been unusually good methods of teaching safety. Many of these typical projects were reported in the *Twenty-fifth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, in publications of the National Safety Council, and in state and city courses of study.
6. Safety games. These also seem to be effective methods of teaching safety. City and state directors of physical education can do much by sending out descriptions of some of the good safety games that have been organized.

7. Poster lessons. A large number of interesting posters may be secured from automobile clubs, safety councils, and insurance organizations that are helpful as a basis for teaching safety lessons. Of course, it is always best to have the children make their own posters, but these posters from agencies outside the schools are sometimes useful in planning safety lessons.

8. Motion pictures and slides. These are also valuable in stressing certain subjects in safety. Several very good films are now available and may be secured at a minimum cost from various national and local safety organizations. Films on fire prevention rotated through elementary schools in a city system have been found to be very useful.

In general we could say that classroom teachings should try to stress these eight types of lessons and place less emphasis on other types of lessons which appear to be less valuable. We must remember that safety education is serious business. The dangers that surround children are real dangers, and not those of a make-believe world. A single failure to act in the safe way in a dangerous life situation so often is followed by an unfortunate accident.

In the elementary schools, safety can also be taught through extracurriculum activities. School clubs such as boy scouts, girl scouts, first aid, life saving, and junior safety councils may have many desirable safety activities in their programs. The school assembly may feature safety several times during the school year. Many interesting assembly programs in the form of plays, demonstrations, and pageants have been written for the use of elementary schools. In addition there are many new motion pictures available on fire prevention, accident prevention, and other safety subjects. Three of the best of these suited particularly to elementary schools are "Why Be a Goose?" "How Jim Won the Game," and "The Verdict" which may be secured from local safety councils. In addition to these extracurriculum activities, schools should cooperate with local and national agencies in fire prevention campaigns, clean-up weeks, and other activities featuring safety because there is every evidence to show that many of these campaigns are effective in reducing fires, accidents, and other wastes and losses which cost our country so much each year.

In organizing the safety program in a school system, it is recommended that the supervision of the work in the community be placed in the hands of one of the administrative officers such as the director of health and physical education. Thus supervision in time should have a safety committee consisting of members of the teaching staff and safety experts in the community, such as the chiefs of police and fire departments and the local safety director. In each school it seems desirable to have one person, either a principal or teacher, as the safety representative for the school. This safety adviser takes charge of patrols and councils, assists teachers in securing material, and supervises other safety activities of the school. Safety posters and lesson plans, which will be helpful to teachers in stressing certain phases of the safety and conservation movement, may be secured from local safety councils, automobile clubs, and other safety agencies.

I have been asked many times whether or not this work in safety education tends to produce fears. When safety is taught in the right way it tends to banish fears rather than cause them. Knowledge and good safety habits drive fears away and make us feel safer. A child who learns to swim and thereby increases his safety, loses his fear of the water. Children should be taught to face the realities of life, and the dangers of their environment fairly and squarely.

Does safety education restrict the adventures of childhood? No, on the other hand, it tends to do away with the dull, stupid adventures of life, and gives us opportunities for greater adventures. Admiral Byrd is perhaps one of the best examples of safety in great adventures. When Governor Roosevelt was presenting Byrd with the medal of the State of New York, he said in effect: "Dick Byrd, it isn't so much because of the land you have discovered and your memorable conquest of the Pole that we honor you here today. It is rather because you have demonstrated through your careful preparations, your provisions for safeguarding your men. You have achieved a glorious adventure, brought all your men back safely to us again." In just this same way we must protect children from the stupid adventures of life, so that they may live for the greater adventures.

WHAT SHOULD A SCHOOL HEALTH SERVICE PROGRAM BE?

ALLEN M. KERR, MEDICAL SUPERVISOR, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, PITTSBURGH, PA.

Do we have a clear-cut conception of the ideal toward which we are constantly striving? Our department of hygiene, of which the medical service is a division, has been in existence for almost twenty years and has gradually and painfully evolved from a simply organized bureau with a small personnel to a large, wellrounded, and earnest group whose activities reach into and influence every nook and corner of the city school system; and it has learned much from experience.

It might be well to outline briefly the basic conceptions of our activities. The first and fundamental statement is this: Any school procedure harmful to the health of pupil or teacher is educationally unsound. The school system to which the state and the parent entrust the custody of the child for one-fifth of his waking hours is under a moral obligation to return the child in at least as good a physical and emotional condition as he was received. It becomes the duty of the medical service to discover and seek to remedy any feature of school routine which fails to meet this requirement. The school must do the child no harm; the child must be made and kept as physically fit as possible so that he may make normal school progress; the handicaps with which he enters school must be removed or mitigated and new difficulties must be prevented from developing during his school life.

This statement is so in accord with our modern ideas of the functions of the school that it now needs neither enlargement nor argument. Yet it opens the door to far greater responsibilities and opportunities than had heretofore been visioned, since it places upon the medical service the burden of discovering and eliminating anything in the educational field which can be shown to have possibilities of harm to the child. We have not always had this wide perspective; rather it has been forced upon us by the resistless march of events.

When we began with what at first was simply school medical inspection we had the rather naive idea that parents, once acquainted with the knowledge that there existed in their children defects which threatened their physical wellbeing and retarded their school progress, would rush *en masse* for the nearest doctor or clinic to procure the speediest possible correction of the dire misfortune. So for two or three years we blithely piled statistics upon statistics and earnestly counted the tonsils which should come out and the teeth which should be taken care of, until suddenly we discovered that while our statistics were interesting and instructive, our results in terms of corrections were negligible. Putting aside our preconceptions, we massed our corps of nurses for the fray and set out once again to procure the results which were the only excuse for our being.

We did get results; tonsils were taken out by the hundreds and teeth were extracted by the bushel, and yet to our surprise, our statistics showed that more new defects turned up every year than the number of old defects corrected. We found ourselves gradually being swamped under this steadily mounting avalanche of children below normalcy.

Then we entered upon the third phase of our work, the first phase having been to find the defects, the second phase to get them removed, and the third phase to prevent their occurrence and to minimize their consequences. It was soon found that even a cursory examination showed in most of the old school buildings and in far too many of the newer ones, conditions which militated considerably against the physical welfare of the children who must live within their walls. It was soon found that architects can comply with every state law as to lighting, floor area, and air space and yet succeed in creating classrooms which seem especially designed to produce physical defects in a child. These rooms are often so constructed that the only way effectually to improve conditions is to tear down and replace them. From this experience grew our second fundamental proposition: the public school system is responsible for ascertaining so far as is possible the causes that lie back of the failure of any child to make normal school progress and for remedying or removing so far as possible these causes.

Then the actual employment of special classes and corrective clinics was in pursuance of a third basic principle of our educational philosophy; namely, it is the business of the public school to make of every handicapped child as small a liability and as large an asset as possible to the community.

There was something incongruous and futile in spending time and money attempting to undo evils which were to some extent at least the result of errors in building design. While, for instance, sight-saving classes for children with eye deficiencies were urgently needed, beyond our ability to provide them, it seemed the height of foolishness to permit faultily designed buildings to be an important factor in producing these very conditions, and so perpetuating the evil we were striving to do away with, for we found to our surprise not merely in our own city but elsewhere, that newly erected buildings showed only too often the same harmful conditions experience had discovered in the old.

We began to understand that a beautiful blueprint is not the only criterion of a useful school, and that beauty of location and grandeur of structure are utterly insufficient to atone for inner details which detract seriously from the efficiency of the teaching process. It seemed wiser, therefore, that instead of pointing out the mistakes in our new schools after they had been erected, when correction was usually impossible, the department of hygiene should be called in consultation upon the plans before ever a clod of dirt was turned up. Thus in the light of our knowledge of the child's needs and of our experiences with the defects of previous similar structures, we were in a position to detect anything which would fail to meet the criterion of the child's wellbeing. A health service which does not thus protect the child from exposure to unfavorable conditions in the new schools constantly being planned is failing to realize on all its opportunities for service.

The same reasoning applies to proposed changes in the curriculum. Almost all such changes have a health angle, which should have the careful consideration of the medical service division before being put into actual practise. The length of session, the length of each period, the time and length of the lunch period, its relation to swimming, gymnasium, or other physical activity periods are examples of conditions having a possible marked influence upon pupil health. For instance, among the reasons influencing the Pittsburgh school system to adopt the platoon school as the preferred elementary type, its marked advantages from the health standpoint were not the least prominent.

Another factor which is markedly influential in modifying the pupil's health, especially his emotional health, is the teacher-pupil relation. It is easily possible for a teacher's attitude toward a pupil to modify seriously his whole afterlife. A recent writer on this subject of teachers' attitudes and children's behavior advocates that teachers should be so trained that their attitudes may be more intelligent and hygienic in effect. We believe that before a prospective teacher is permitted to begin training a careful physical and mental examination should be given by the school authorities, and that, once having actually entered the teaching profession, a yearly examination by the teacher's own physician shall be evidence of his continuing ability to give satisfactory service. We also demand of every teacher who wishes to re-enter the service after a leave of absence because of physical disability an examination to prove that the disability no longer exists.

The relationships between the divisions of physical education and medical service are of necessity extremely close. An ultimate objective of physical education is through the proper training of the body and of certain of the emotions to prevent the occurrence of many of the defects which we now spend our time attempting to have corrected. For example, effective training in proper posture and breathing lessens markedly the likelihood of tuberculosis of the chest and of some types of malnutrition. The athletic program with its insistence upon sportsmanship, fair play, winning without boasting and losing without resentment, and kindred mental attitudes, is doing much to prevent the development of emotional maladjustments in later life.

On the other hand medical service feels it should scrutinize from a health standpoint the types of exercise and the manner in which they are performed, and should guard the pools and the gymnasiums from factors which might lead to possible infection or physical impairment of the participants. It assumes the duty of aiding in determining what types of, how much, and when physical exercise shall be undertaken by pupils having heart, orthopedic, or other physical ills. It assumes also the duty of examining all pupils who wish to take part in competitive athletics, and gives the final decision as to the physical fitness so to participate. It is often a terrible blow to a coach's hopes to lose thus unexpectedly the services of a star athlete around whom he may have hoped to build a winning team; this occurs fairly often in our system, but our teachers have learned to take it philosophically, as one of the breaks of the game.

School health service has passed beyond its older ideal of merely finding and recording defects; beyond even the more modern effort to have such defects corrected, and to provide special clinics and special types of schools to alleviate the misfortunes of handicapped children. It seeks to do even more than merely to find in school buildings, curriculums and equipment, the specific features which may react unfavorably on the health of the child, and to have them removed.

It seeks rather to have its opinions received with respect and attention when after careful scrutiny of the plans for new buildings, or the details of changes in the curriculums or other features of school administration, it condemns or approves them from the standpoint of the school child's well-being, physical, mental, or emotional.

Only with such a viewpoint and with such powers can it attain its desired objective—to raise the health standards of the child and of his environment so as to decrease constantly the necessity for merely medical attention, and so ultimately to reduce to the vanishing point that part of its work concerned with discovering and correcting defects. Only then can it center its whole activity upon its true reason for existing—the prevention of all school conditions of whatever type detrimental to the child; in this endeavor it must have and expects the wholehearted cooperation of its brother in service—physical education.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Columbus Meeting

The first meeting of the Department was called to order Monday, June 30, at 2 oclock by the President, J. E. Rogers, who was the presiding officer for the meeting. He appointed a nominating committee as follows: William Burdick, *chairman,* Ethel Perrin, and Darwin A. Hindman.

Dr. Burdick made a motion that the constitution be amended to read that the term of office for the secretary-treasurer shall be for four years rather than for one year, and that the secretary-treasurer be elected for a four-year term. The motion was seconded and unanimously carried.

The president announced the two outstanding pieces of work done by the two committees of the department, namely: (1) the revision and publication of *Health Education, a Program for Public Schools and Teacher-training Institutions,* (2) the report and the work of the joint committee with the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company on the Study of the Relationship between the Size of the Classroom and the Health of those Children.

The attendance at this meeting was estimated to be about 1100.

The meeting on Tuesday July 1st was called to order by the President J. E. Rogers who introduced the presiding officer, Mary E. Murphy. The attendance at this meeting was computed to be about 1400.

The business meeting was called to order at 3:45 by the president. Mr. Rogers put before the business meeting the amendment which was unanimously carried at the previous meeting on Monday according to the procedure prescribed in the constitution. The amendment that the secretary-treasurer hold office for four years instead of one year was made, seconded, and unanimously carried. The nominating committee reported as nominees the officers indicated on page 502.

A motion was made, seconded, and carried that the secretary cast a ballot for the officers named. There were no nominations from the floor. The motion was unanimously carried. The president made a report on the work of the Department for the past year.

Department of Science Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE INSTRUCTION is an outgrowth of a State Department of Natural Science Teachers which was organized at a meeting of the Colorado State Teachers' Association in 1894. See *Proceedings,* 1894:951. It was first known as the Department of Natural Science Instruction.

The officers of the Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President,* Ralph K. Watkins, Associate Professor of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.; *Secretary,* Charles F. Edwards, Supervisor of Nature Study, Public Schools, Los Angeles, Calif. This Department meets once each year, in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1895: 951-959
1896: 937-968
1897: 916-959
1898: 959-985
1899: 1097-1118
1900: 592-609
1901: 771-803
1902: 759-790
1903: 847-897
1904: 843-897
1905: 781-827
1906: 719
1907: 951-959
1908: 965-999
1909: 789-829
1910: 949-969
1911: 939-993
1912: 1153-1195
1913: 695-717
1914: 721-773
1915: 995-1029
1916: 699-751
1917: 535-557
1918: 295
1919: 289
1920: 305-309
1921: 663-667
1922: 1239-1267
1923: 843-861
1924: 753-775
1925: 598-609
1926: 624-636
1927: 583-597
1928: 569-589
1929: 559-579

WHAT IMPROVED SERVICE DOES THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER HAVE THE RIGHT TO EXPECT OF LEADERS IN NATURE AND SCIENCE EDUCATION?

E. LAURENCE PALMER, PROFESSOR OF RURAL EDUCATION, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N. Y.

THE elementary teacher has the right to expect improved service from the professional leadership of science education in the direction of better training in teachers colleges, better supervision and help for those in service, greater freedom from politics, from the domineering influence of secondary school leaders, greater freedom from the influence of standardization that limits teaching as an art, and a greater right to rely upon as authentic the contributions of many who hold places of great influence in the field of education.

Training in leadership in the nature and science field should be improved in the direction of more generous course offerings. In New York State an elementary teacher may be called upon to teach science though she may have had not to exceed fifty-five lessons covering the content and methods of science. This is obviously inadequate. We have a right to expect that those institutions that train elementary teachers recognize the importance of their obligation and not aim to become junior colleges and offer courses in science inappropriate for use by any stretch of the imagination at elementary school levels. We have the right to expect that the financial and professional support given the courses for elementary teachers be at least in proportion to the number of elementary teachers being trained by the institution. We have the right to expect that expansion in courses be in the direction of proving faith over a few things before expecting to become a master over many. The fact, for example, that one teacher-training college in Ohio offers over thirty courses in the department of biological science with a staff of four members and that most of these courses seem, according to the catalogue, to be aimed at making science specialists is not encouraging to those who may attend the institution hoping to get help for work in the elementary field. Science teachers preparing elementary teachers should recognize the importance of their jobs and should receive appropriate recognition by those in authority.

Part of the responsibility for the present situation rests upon the universities that have trained the teachers college staffs. Many influential universities such as Harvard, Washington, Michigan, California and Leland Stanford are not training individuals to work with science in the elementary field. This is hardly true of Chicago, Cornell, Columbia, and Western Reserve.

Teachers colleges also are suffering from the influence of teachers college associations whose standards are influenced by the members' ambitions to become liberal arts colleges. This situation does not improve the offerings in science suitable for elementary school use available in these institutions.

Elementary teachers in service have the right to expect supervision and helps comparable to that available in other subjects. In Nebraska, for example, there are over twenty special music supervisors and not a single science supervisor. One city's elementary school system in Nebraska supports three music supervisors and not a single nature or science supervisor.

Elementary teachers have the right to freedom from the influence of politics. Such a situation is now existing in the wrangling over which is proper, nature study or elementary science. Much of the good nature study is better science than that parading under the banner of science. We need someone who can do for elementary science what Wiley did for pure foods—something that will produce honesty in advertising.

Elementary teachers of science need to be freed from the burden of helping others earn doctor's degrees, from the undue standardization brought about by poorly planned and poorly executed tests. They need freedom to use local materials in preference to materials selected by courses of study outlined by others, and freedom to use to advantage the opportunities offered by the moment. They need freedom from the necessity of joining too many organizations and paying too many dues with no assurance that their interests will be represented in the councils of the influential or in the printed pages of the periodicals.

The elementary teacher has a right to expect that some reliance can be placed on the stamp of approval placed on contributions by those in high positions. The approval of a very prominent leader of Columbia of the Baltimore course of study that states among many similar things that the earth is the center of the solar system should be taken as evidence that he did not read the course critically before giving it his approval. This becomes more evident when the course is read with any care. Elementary teachers have the right to expect that approval by men in positions such as his is based upon critical examination. This same criticism holds when applied to tests approved by leaders from Chicago and Washington.

In addition, elementary teachers have the right to expect that studies pretending to be made carefully have avoided every possible chance of error. I believe that Curtis of Michigan erred in this respect in accepting as authentic and reliable the study of interests made by Pollock in Columbus. By so accepting Pollock's study he stated that the children of Columbus, and by assumption all children, were more interested in Mars than in anything pertaining to human beings or to other animals, for that matter. Such a conclusion seems silly and unreasonable.

It is only when all leaders in nature and science education are willing to be perfectly honest—willing to abandon a great amount of work when it is shown to have lead to futile conclusions—only then that elementary teachers and others can be assured that those in high positions are really entitled to the following which they claim to have.

VITAL VALUES IN SCIENCE TEACHING

BENJAMIN C. GRUENBERG, THE VIKING PRESS, NEW YORK, N. Y.

The vital values that science can contribute may be summarized as:

1. *Useful knowledge*—This is always subject to revision because not only is knowledge itself changing, but values in knowledge are changing. Very few today need to know how to manage a horse. Everybody must know how to push a button, but very few need to know how to restore a salammoniac cell.

2. *Leisure pursuits*—This should be left entirely to individual choice, without prejudice. Whether individual hobbies remain merely harmless forms of pastime or rise to the level of serious art or science is not of great importance. It is important only that avenues to wholesome recreation be opened in all directions, including the directions that lead to playing with stars and ions and splendid bursts of imagination. Let us consider, in this connection, the curious conflict between our nominal worship of individuality and independence of judgment, on the one hand, and our systematic cooperation in the mechanization and standardization of life, on the other—standardization toward which both science and education make substantial contributions.

3. *A technic of inquiry*—This should be taught, if at all, so as to be assimilated, so as to permeate all thinking, if indeed our socalled scientific method has any validity outside the management of restricted types of problems. To hear a critic say that this or that book, this or that person, is "too scientific" must give us pause.

4. *Scientific attitude*—This attitude is characterized by some of these features: objectivity, open-mindedness, suspension of judgment while awaiting facts, freedom from dogma, and readiness to revise conclusions. Underlying all, however, is perhaps the most difficult feature of all, namely, some skill and some habituation in the scrutiny of our basic assumptions.

5. *Tolerance*—This is not usually put down in our schedules of specific aims, either in science courses or in other courses. It is something quite different from the open-mindedness on which science teachers pride themselves; nor is it the same as indifference to what others think. From the repeated experience of finding ourselves mistaken, we should learn at last to entertain a lurking suspicion of the possibility that we may be mistaken today. Science, properly taught, might help toward a suitable humility as to the things we are sure about and perhaps toward a corresponding sympathy for the obvious errors of others. An appreciation of the human factors in the attainment of error as well as in the attainment of truth, may make for a broader sympathy, not to say compassion, that the humanists seem to miss among the scientists.

Man is the only animal that has more brain than he knows what to do with, enough to get him into serious mischief. It is this surplus which is, at least in part, responsible for the arts and sciences, the religions and philosophies, the governments and commerce. It is also responsible for the distinctive material manifestations of man's efforts, including wars and hospitals, racketeering and drives for famine relief. Science is from one point of view a certain manner of using the superfluous cortical matter of the brain. This scientific manner is in turn an elaboration of earlier, in some respects more fundamental, modes, and it is supposed to yield special values as indicated. We may not expect introductory courses in general science or in the specialized sciences to introduce young students to the philosophical problems that underlie the scientific way of dealing with life. It is reasonable, however, to expect of teachers of science, and especially of the leaders in science teaching, the makers of syllabuses and tests and textbooks, some acquaintance with these underlying problems. Confronted with many such books, reports, and documents, one is impressed by a certain provincialism in outlook. A certain identification of many of the writers with their own localities, their own periods, their own social classes, their own familiar thoughts, the materials of their daily lives.

As teachers we would seem to need, in addition to knowledge of subject-matter, in addition to a technic of teaching, something to make us reach out constantly for broader contacts with human efforts in other lines; but especially do we seem to need a clearer philosophical and social orientation and a better historical perspective on the stuff we teach.

TRENDS AND INVESTIGATIONS IN TEACHING PROCEDURES FOR HIGH-SCHOOL SCIENCES AND SOME POSSIBLE VALUES

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Two years ago a paper similar to this was presented at the meeting of the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers[1]. That paper was limited to the field of general science and presented a general impression of recent movements in teaching procedures. The present paper is intended to cover a wider range, that of the various high-school sciences and is based upon the records of recently published material, chiefly that found in periodicals. There is the additional intent of bringing the previous summary of trends in science teaching procedures uptodate. The impressions are based upon a summarization of reports published in *School Science and Mathematics* from January, 1927, to date and in the *General Science Quarterly* and *Science Education* from November 1926 to date. To this has been added other reports of large scale investigations completed during this period or now in progress. There is no pretense that all of the studies in teaching procedure in high-school science during this period have been covered. The amount of material used is considered to be sufficient to give a representative picture of what is now going on.

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[1] Watkins, R. K., "Some Tendencies in Teaching Procedures for General Science." *General Science Quarterly,* March, 1929, p. 140.

The material gathered has been grouped according to a definite number of major trends or significant movements. Twelve of these have been selected for this paper as being of greatest importance. These are as follows:

1. A critical review and analysis of the earlier investigations of teaching procedures.
2. An attempt at refinement, better description and definition of science demonstrations as teaching devices.
3. An attempt at redefinition, better limitation and description of laboratory instruction with attempts at evaluation of laboratory instruction as a means of producing certain definite outcomes in pupils.
4. A marked swing toward unit organization of subjectmatter and instructional technics in all high-school sciences.
5. A critical review of existing science tests, accompanied by attempts to select and build tests to meet particular instructional needs.
6. A beginning movement for diagnosis of pupil difficulties in the learning of science materials.
7. A frank facing of the laboratory instruction issue upon the basis of available apparatus and equipment now found in high schools.
8. A revival of interest in simple, homely, and home-made laboratory and demonstration apparatus.
9. A beginning experimental attack upon the value of visual aids to instruction, especially moving pictures.
10. A continued development of the use of extensive reading for general instruction in the science field.
11. A continued interest in the possibilities of science clubs.
12. A general spreading interest in the use of free and inexpensive supplementary material drawn into the school from outside commercial sources.

The first noticeable tendency in the present period is the attempt to take stock of recent investigations in science teaching, consolidate the findings and form a base for future operations in the way of research in science teaching. This has been accompanied by constructive criticisms of the limitation and definition of problems, of research technics employed, and questioning of interpretations and conclusions drawn from studies. Summaries of this kind have been published by Curtis, Croxton, Downing, Klopp, Riedel, and Watkins.[1]

It is not within the province of this paper to repeat these summaries. Most of the discussion has centered about the group of investigations which have had to do with the relative merits of lecture-demonstration and individual laboratory instruction. The issue has been strongly emphasized by attempts to build actual instructional practise upon the findings of these studies. The titles of papers in the Croxton-Downing discussion are illustrative, *Shall Laboratory Work in the Public Schools be Curtailed?*

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[1] See references in first group of appended bibliography.

This group of summaries has presented no further research but has pointed to the need for other investigations. Certain limitations or criteria to be met stand out clearly as a result of these criticisms. (1) Procedures to be investigated must be clearly described in detail. What is laboratory instruction? How are lecture demonstrations done? (2) Investigations need to be repeated in the same way, with similar controls and with the same tests. (3) Investigations must be repeated under normal public school conditions. (4) Smaller areas need to be selected for investigation. (5) Simpler investigational technics need to be established. (6) Instructional procedures for producing definite types of results in pupils need to be built up and experimentally evaluated.

Out of the attack upon the older type of laboratory instruction there have developed attempts at improvement in demonstration and a new interest in demonstration. This new interest is evidenced by people who are concerned with the training of teachers, by the manufacturers and designers of apparatus, and by the teachers themselves. Work on the improvement of demonstrations has been described by N. H. Black, Colwell and Holmes, Duff, Haut, Jared, Lunt, and Klopsteg.[1] Progress has been made in general science, physics, and chemistry. Almost no work in the experimental evaluation of demonstration technics for producing particular outcomes has been done. Here lies an open field for new experimentation. The criteria for judging demonstrations suggested by Duff in *School Science and Mathematics* and the possible instructional uses for demonstrations listed by Jared offer points of departure.

Although little progress has been made in the experimental evaluation of accurately described demonstration technics, some progress has been made in the attempt to determine the outcomes of laboratory instruction and the relative merits of certain smaller laboratory technics. For the first type the work of Dyer, Horton, and Knox is outstanding.[2] Moore, Dykehouse, and Curtis carried on a study of the relative merits of methods of reporting laboratory exercises. Utterback and Walter [3] have also contributed to this movement although their studies lack in one case careful description and in the other adequate measurement.

The net results of this trend to date, in general terms, would seem to be these: (1) It is possible to set up laboratory teaching procedures which will produce certain outcomes in pupils. In some cases the laboratory produces these outcomes better than a demonstration technic. Whether these outcomes are worth producing might be questioned sometimes. Further work of this kind must depend upon further refinement of measurement devices. (2) Quite gradually we shall learn the relative merits of the smaller technics which make up the complex of the thing which we have called laboratory instruction.

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[1] See references in second group of appended bibliography.
[2] See references in third group of appended bibliography.
[3] See references in third group of appended bibliography.

Unit organization as the basis for planning instruction is apparently here. How far this movement has reached into the actual practise of the rank and file of science teachers, it is extremely difficult to determine. Curriculum makers, professional educators, trainers of teachers, curriculum committees, and textbook writers seem to have adopted this basis of organization almost universally. Those who have been interested in physics teaching have done considerable recent work upon this problem. Other work has been done in the field of elementary science and in high-school biology. Decided progress has been shown by the work of Miss Billig, Downing, Hurd, Hughes and Hurd, Muthersbaugh, Persing, Peters, Weber, and Whitman.[1]

The North Central Association is definitely committed to unit organization in its curriculum construction program. The work of Downing with the high-school biology course and of Hurd with the course in high-school physics are excellent illustrations. Hurd's work in the experimental try-out of new units in high-school physics with measured results in terms of progress of pupils is to be especially marked.

It would seem that given the time to re-train a portion of teachers now in service and time to train the coming generation of new science teachers and large unit organizations will become practically universal.

There is a considerable body of literature that has to do with science tests. Some of this is concerned with critical review and evaluation of existing material. Cunningham, Haskell and Hudelson, and Lohr[2] have done work of this type. With this there is a growing consciousness of the need for selecting tests for particular service uses. Other [3] studies have had to do with test forms and the technicalities of test construction. The work of Webb and Beauchamp and Webb [4] in the measurement of laboratory resourcefulness suggests a new line of departure in the field of science testing. Unit tests in physics and chemistry have been constructed and are now available to teachers of these subjects.[5]

A few recent studies have been concerned with difficulties inherent in the nature of high-school sciences or with diagnosis of pupil difficulties or with remedial treatment of pupil difficulties. Recent workers in this field are Bedell, Cramer, Lohr, and Stewart.[6] These studies, in general, have been in general science, physics, and chemistry. Cramer has shown that pupils having had general science are more successful in later special sciences than pupils who had not had general science.

One group of investigations which do not bear directly upon instructional procedures is included here because of the implications which set very definite limits upon the instructional procedures which may be undertaken by teachers actually at work in the field. This group of studies is concerned with the equipment available for work in high-school science courses. These investigations include those of Miss Thompson, Jensen and Glenn, and Watkins. Miss Thompson states that seventy-one percent of junior high schools investigated had no laboratory facilities.

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[1] See references in fourth group of appended bibliography.

[2] See references in fifth group of appended bibliography.

[3] *Ibid.*

[4] *Ibid.*

[5] Glenn-Obourn, *Instruction Tests in Physics.*
Glenn-Welton, *Instructional Tests in Chemistry.*
Peters-Watkins, *Objective Tests in High School Physics.*

[6] See references in group six of appended bibliography.

With this gloomy picture of available equipment it is not strange that there is some interest in simple and homemade apparatus. There is almost no work here that might be classified as serious research. The work of Haupt, Obourn, and Underhill [1] is worthy of note. Haupt's collection and annotation of home-made physics apparatus from the files of *School Science and Mathematics* is the most helpful of recent studies in this field.

Probably the extensive contribution to the available procedures in science teaching has been made by workers who have been concerned with the value of visual aids, especially with the value of moving pictures as aids to science instruction. The work in this field extends from the large scale development of teaching films done by the Eastman Company through the extensive learning studies of Freeman and Wood to the evaluation of particular devices for special teaching such as Miss Huebner's study. Much work has been done by Brown, Finegan, Freeman, Freeman and Wood, Miss Huebner, Shriner, and Wilbur.[2]

Practically all of the investigation shows positive results in favor of visual aids. Work with moving pictures has been favorable to their use. In some studies instruction by means of moving pictures produced results as good as those secured by other means of instruction. Brown found strip film superior to moving pictures for some types of biological illustration. There is yet difficulty in obtaining films which have high instructional value and not too high a percentage of advertising material and superficial entertainment features. Expense is yet a decided factor limiting the use of films and most other visual equipment. No investigations have recommended the substitution of moving picture instruction for other means of teaching. Biology teachers are evidencing great interest in various means for projecting illustrative material on the screen in lieu of much detailed microscopic work and some dissection on the part of beginning students. Most teachers have not made even a good beginning in canvassing the possibilities of the visual aids to teaching which are now on the market.

There continues to be some interest in the encouragement of extensive reading in the field of natural science. H. A. Webb [3] is continuing his annual review of new science books suitable for high-school libraries. Gere and Hildebrand [4] have contributed reports upon the values of reading.

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[1] See references in group eight of appended bibliography.

[2] See references included in group nine of the appended bibliography.

[3] See group ten in the accompanying bibliography.

[4] *Ibid.*

Almost no research has been done in this field since the pioneer investigation of F. D. Curtis. Caldwell, Slosson, and Kellogg have compiled a list of recent science books for lay readers for the Women's Division of the National Civic Federation. This should be in the hands of every science teacher and on the bulletin board in every science classroom.

Science clubs continue to flourish. No major evaluations of their products seem to have been done since the work of Morris Meister. Webb[1] has collected a large body of very practical data upon current practises in the management of science clubs. Miller[2] has gathered outlines for the guidance of clubs. These collections should be of major value to the teacher who administers a science club in connection with his program of science teaching.

Teachers, as well as other folk, have always been interested in getting something for nothing. For a long time many teachers have used advertising pamphlets, models, and charts as supplementary teaching aids. Several people have arranged and classified lists to guide teachers in securing and using such material. The best of such lists are those of Dunbar, Persing, Roller, and Woodring.[3] To date there seem to be no experimental data to prove the values of such material or to distinguish between the merits of different types of such material.

Some final general impressions of our present status may not be out of place. For the modern teacher of science there seems to be little excuse for drifting along with the monotonous daily grind of what has always been done. These dozen movements in science instruction should offer a possibility of a well rounded kit of tools for science instruction. Some of the suggestions for improved instruction have been well enough proved to offer little danger of malpractise. On the other hand, if after weeks of reading there are gleaned only a handful of experimentally evaluated procedures, it would seem that we are only entering the era of making more scientific our science teaching and that what remains to be done offers a clamorous challenge to every member of our guild.

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[1] See group eleven in the attached bibliography.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] See group twelve in appended bibliography.

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Department of Secondary School Principals

THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS was organized in Topeka, Kansas, in 1886, under the name of the Department of Secondary Instruction. See *Proceedings*, 1887:396. Anticipating the proposed merger of the National Association of Secondary Principals with the National Education Association, the name of the Department was changed to the Department of Secondary School Principals.

The officers for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Louis E. Plummer, Principal, Fullerton Union High School and Fullerton District Junior College, Fullerton, Calif.; *First Vicepresident*, C. H. Threlkeld, Principal, Columbia High School, South Orange, N. J.; *Second Vicepresident*, John A. Larson, Principal, Senior High School, Little Rock, Ark.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, H. V. Church, Superintendent of Morton Secondary Schools, Cicero, Ill.; *Executive Committee*, F. R. Born, Principal, Junior High School, Ardmore, Okla.; W. C. Giese, Principal, Washington Park High School, Racine, Wis.; Milo H. Stuart, Principal, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Ind. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1887:395-442
1888:403-433
1889:499-533
1890:615-655
1891:617-687
1892:332-373
1893:177-242
1894:743-794
1895:579-635
1896:557-619
1897:644-699
1898:664-700
1899:601-818
1900:428-453
1901:565-604
1902:455-492
1903:429-486
1904:473-536
1905:423-479
1906:633-637
1907:521-710
1908:577-667
1909:479-522
1910:443-533
1911:555-657
1912:663-765
1913:469-499
1914:445-488
1915:723-753
1916:517-574
1917:253-284
1918:177-189
1919:195-204
1920:209-230
1921:667-678
1922:1267-1293
1923: 861-880
1924: 775-802
1925: 450-477
1926: 636-652
1927: 599-677
1928: 591-650
1929: 579-632

SOME FORGOTTEN VIEWPOINTS FOR REORGANIZING THE SECONDARY SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

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INTRODUCTION—*Tohu va bohu*—When I was a young man I went to school in Germany. One of the requirements for junior college graduation was Hebrew. I take it that this ancient and honored tongue was then considered in the nature of an "exploratory course" for the future life, and that it occupied the same functional importance in the integrated curriculum of that distant epoch as does community civics or some such other rigorous study in the salvational schemes of our secondary school systems of today. My general recollection is one of extreme chagrin at my ignorance of the language, but also one of intense delight at having retained a lapidary phrase of its great literature which to my mind expresses admirably the state of current belief and theory concerning secondary education. The phrase is *Tohu va bohu,* and means "without form and void."

My contribution to this program, therefore, will be not so much a presentation of new points of view as a critical scrutiny of the anarchy of ideas that lies at the basis of much of our educational thought and practise, and which is simply the reflection of the ethical and logical fallacies implicit in the reigning popular philosophies of the goals and objectives of life. My animadversions are to be taken as directed in no wise to the many enduring and signal achievements of secondary schoolmen and schoolwomen in the never-ending battle for the salvation of adolescent humanity. These achievements, which some day will rank as veritable epics in the annals of human progress, will be recounted by the speakers that are to follow me in the sessions of the next three days. And, in order to clear the way for the discussion of fundamental points, let me say at the outset that the major part of the topics or movements assigned by the program-makers and the president of this section for discussion has assumed almost the status of educational dogmas. Few would now have the hardihood to say that the junior high school and the junior college under the auspices of secondary school administrators have not come to stay. The Brahmins and the Mandarins of the higher culture have emitted their final ululations on this last subject. Terminal courses in the senior high school and the junior college for those not going beyond for their education are admitted. Rational economy in educational administration is an axiom. The transformation of the high school from an elimination institution to one that embraces the welfare of all, is conceded. The transfer of the center of emphasis in teaching from subject-matter attainment to the arousing and the consolidating of the interest of the pupil in all the heritages of the race, in everything that is human, until that interest remains a permanent possession for life and the ceaseless source of educational transfiguration for every individual—all this is basic, all this is necessary assumption.

But back of these grandiose practical movements and conceptions, which are all in a fair way of being realized, lowers and lurks a pernicious popular philosophy of values—a philosophy based on materialistic and sensualistic theories of life, and on zoological conceptions of the worth of life. This shallow and fallacious philosophy, under the cover of popular approval, has subtly informed much of our educational practise. If unchecked, it bids fair to dehumanize all our educational ideals. The destruction of it is, I take it, one of the major tasks of educational leadership today. And I am now going to address myself to that task.

The zoological conception of education—One of the chief forms this philosophy has taken is what I term the *zoological* conception of education. It is not formally taught by schools of education. It is a latent theory concealed deep back in the fogs of popular opinion. This theory conceives man as essentially an animal. It places the ultimate emphasis on animal health as the objective of life. Health is not conceived as means to an end. It is conceived as an end *per se.* Its corollaries are that diversion and recreation are the goals of human existence. It has elevated "sport" and the cult of the body to the dignity almost of a popular religion. Every nation of history that has dedicated itself to the exclusive cult of the body has perished. No surveys, no statistical researches are necessary for the establishment of this truth.

The gastronomic conception of education—Another form the doctrine has taken is what may be termed the economic, or perhaps better, the gastronomic theory of education. This theory conceives man not as a human being, as a *person,* with human objectives, not as an intellectual, an esthetic or a civic animal, but essentially as a producing and a consuming animal. *Homo sapiens* here becomes *homo consumens.* His characteristic organs are the belly and the back. The struggle of life in this theory is the struggle for the trough. The holy ark of its covenant is salesmanship. It is the sire of the commercial philosophy of education, which has moved one modernist educator to recommend that the mysteries of the installment plan be taught in our schools as an integral part of the equipment of American youth for the higher life. It has given us night football as an instrument for the ethical uplift of adolescence, and in many towns has put the three balls of the pawnbroker in the place of the escutcheon of Minerva.

The theory of values—What recourse have we for the refutation of these fallacious and pernicious conceptions? I have intimated that our recourse lies in a critical scrutiny of fundamental ideas. And the upshot of this scrutiny will be clarity as to our ideas of value.

The theory of values is the result of some twenty-five hundred years of close human thinking, and acquaintance with it is a duty of both the curriculum-maker and the curriculum-executioner. This theory affirms that of the many things desired by human beings, of the many things sought to be incorporated in their persons, some are instrumental and some are final. It asserts that some are simply means to ends and should never be cultivated as ends; that some have intrinsic and permanent worth and others have only temporary and contributory worth. It maintains, for example, that health and wealth, while fundamental and absolutely necessary, are instruments only for the realization of the complete human life, and that no species of them, whether sport, recreation, diversion, leisure, or the consumption of material goods, should ever be made the exclusive goals of human existence. They are the substructure and not the superstructure of humanity.

Put differently, this philosophy maintains that man is more than an animal; that he is an animal plus his humanity; that he is more than an economic man; that he is more than an efficient tool to be used for the exclusive purposes either of society or of industry; that he is also an end in himself and not an agency to be used for the ends of other men; in fine, that he is an ethical person.

Going to the ignorant for knowledge—It is my belief that a thorough grasp of these fundamental points of view is necessary not only for research but also for the formation in every community of that background of sound public opinion which is the basis of successful conduct of the schools. We have too long been meekly accepting the shallow philosophies of the unthinking. It is time for the assertion of intellectual leadership. Too long have we sought the opinions of those who do not know. Too long have we been the slaves of the sad philosophy of the questionnaire, which assumes that when we do not know a thing we shall be enlightened if we go those who know less, and which believes that out of the addition of innumerable ignorances, knowledge will have miraculous birth. We must cease going to the ignorant for knowledge. We must not ask the ignorant what they think; we must *tell* the ignorant what they think. Never in the history of the world has ignorance shown its present aggressiveness. Ignorance formerly was passive and dumb. Through superficial education, it has now grown articulate. The real danger is not ignorance *per se*. The real danger is ignorance in motion.

Norms and standards—Furthermore, I would have some attention given to the laying down of a body of principles by which norms and standards are to be determined. For example, in determining what artithmetic or what spelling should be taught in the schools, I would not inquire what arithmetic those who are ignorant of arithmetic know, or what words the illiterate, or the half or quarter-educated misspell. I should rather seek to determine what arithmetic the ignorant *ought to know* and what words the illiterate *ought to spell* in order to participate according to their powers in the heritages of the race. In other words, I would reject the philosophy that whatever is is right and would seek to establish the philosophy of the things that "ought to be."

The encyclopedic theory of education—Another fallacious theory which aggressive minorities ignorant of educational problems have forced upon us is what has been termed the encyclopedic theory of education. The encyclopedic theory of education was shattered a century and a half ago, yet it is born again and again in multitudinous forms. It is the theory that if in later life we are to be everything and to know everything, then everything should be taught in the schools. And so nearly every branch of knowledge invented and developed since Aristotle has been thrust into the bag of the curriculum-makers. The result has been plethora, anarchy, and indigestion—again *Tohu va bohu*.

The solution once more lies in the examination of fundamental ideas. Nearly all human science, nearly all distinctively human achievement arise out of the need of saving physical and mental labor. Science is essentially economy of thought. Mastery of any field involves economy of effort. It should be our aim therefore to set up this fundamental principle of economy in all schemes for curriculum reconstruction. It is not necessary to know everything—it is necessary to know only significant things, only meaningful things. If we know significant things, if we know meaningful things, knowledge of other things will follow automatically. The *desideratum* is type-things, and education should concern itself mainly with the construction and inculcation of *type*-studies and *type*-activities. Before many years the corpse of "transfer of training" will be reanimated and borne back in triumph to its old state of prestige. No transfer of training, no humanistic education.

The school an ethical or civic laboratory—It will be seen that I conceive the end of education to be primarily the construction of the *human person*. Man is not only a physical animal, a vocational animal—he is also an intellectual animal, an esthetic animal, and above all he is an *ethical* animal. The theory takes full account of "individual differences." It is the commonest fact of observation that few people are highly gifted vocationally, or intellectually, or esthetically. But it is also a fact of common observation that every normal individual possesses tolerable ethical, civic, or social capacities. Few of us become Rockefellers or Carnegies; few of us become Newtons or Einsteins; few of us become Michelangelos or Raphaels. *But we can all behave*. The ethical, the social, the civic scene, is the playground on which each human being can act a royal role and in which he can achieve reasonable fulfillment of the human life. The school, like the family, must be conceived as an ethical laboratory, as a civic laboratory, in which the human person, the civic or the social person, can be created and shaped; and the better part of the elaborate machinery of the school is to be conceived as engines for ethical and social gymnastics. In the Utopia of the future, the ethical gymnasium will take its place by the side of the physical gymnasium.

The education of the emotions: mental hygiene—But perhaps the greater problem of educational reconstruction still remains. It is involved in the theory last advanced. If the main task of the school and the family is the formation of character, the construction of the human being or the human person, then the stability, the vocational and ethical efficiency, the peace and the rational happiness of that human being must constitute preliminary objectives to be realized. But these objectives cannot be realized without according a high place to a factor that has often been emphasized by thinkers of the past, but has never been organically incorporated into our curriculums or into our formal technic of educational control. This factor is the emotional factor.

It is now a commonplace of psychology that in most instances our conduct and our beliefs are determined primarily by our interests and by our emotions; that we act first and reason afterwards; that the major part of our intellectual processes are employed to justify what we have done rather than to initiate what we ought to do; that the intellect is the slave rather than the master of human passions and desires.

Under the pressure of this new knowledge, character education is assuming new aspects. It is being conceived under the aspect of mental health. The greatest need of today for peace, happiness, civic and ethical efficiency is the *education of the emotions,* rather than the education of the intellect or the education of the hand. Mental hygiene is now taking its place by the side of physical hygiene as an indispensable instrument of education.

Educational guidance—The concept of mental hygiene thus contains the promise of fruitful educational transformations. Much of its literature is still uncritical, but common sense will separate the wheat from the chaff. From this point of view, which aims at successful and rational behavior in every field of life, all forms of organized guidance will be integrated under the single concept of ethical or humanistic guidance. Unity and dignity will be given to the numerous uncoordinated devices that educators have invented for leading pupils to success. The causes of failure will now be treated and not the symptoms. Hitherto, nearly all devices, such as supervised study, have attacked resultant states and not initial causes, and have blissfully ignored the deeper-lying emotional obstacles that paralyze the mechanism of attention, poison the springs of interest, and banish intellectual repose. Pure vocational guidance, which rests upon a false conception of the ends of human life, will be absorbed in the larger function of character guidance, which will find for every normal child, whatever his talents or purposes, the conditions favorable for his growth to his maximum and to his optimum capacities. This concept will also involve a system of personal and character ratings supplementary to scholarship, records by which every child will be better understood and better conducted to the realization of his hereditary capacities. In other words, education will become humanistic and supply some justification for any of us being alive on earth.

THE PLACE OF TECHNICAL COURSES IN THE REORGANIZED SECONDARY SCHOOL

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To the educator of today who has inherited classical ideals and traditions, the coming of the machine civilization has been a shock. He deplores and regrets this and will never be comforted until he hears fate shouting, "Be your age." With the passing of the years the slang expression, "Be Your Age" has lost some of its tang but none of its philosophy of education. "Be Your Age" is a prescription which, if followed carefully, will build up some of the weak places in modern education. It suggests such profound truths that it might well be adopted as a slogan by curriculum builders. It tends to draw the schools from their everlasting contemplation of the past to thought and action for the present and the future. Educational systems are distinctly conservative and doubtless will always be conservative, for every generation reveres its own type of schooling. Every man is an example to himself of the efficiency of the educational program which he followed in his youth with more or less regularity. Hence, educational systems lag behind other types of social agencies, thereby tending to perpetuate the *status quo*. True, conservatism may be a virtue, but over-indulgence in it may lead to vice. To illustrate: For many years the schools have proclaimed the glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome, while ignoring the machinery and the technology that were modern Europe and America as they study the ages of stone and bronze and the civilizations of Egypt, Babylonia, Assyria, Greece, and Rome, the schools hardly noticed the suction from the onward rush of the machine civilization guided by science and technology. Reverence for the past should not hide the facts of the present nor the possibilities of the future. Unfortunately many educators have been slow to realize the value of experiment. Theories picked from the air have served many purposes when facts were irritations.

According to John Dewey in *The Quest for Certainty:*

> The whole classic tradition down to our day has continued to hold a slighting view of experience as such.

Again he says:

> The depreciation of action, of doing and making, has been cultivated by philosophers. But while philosophers have perpetuated the derogation by formulating and justifying it, they did not originate it. They glorified their own office without doubt in placing theory so much above practise. But independently of their attitude, many things conspired to the same effect. Work has been onerous, toilsome, associated with a primeval curse. It has been done under compulsion and the pressure of necessity, while intellectual activity is associated with leisure. On account of the unpleasantness of practical activity, as much of it as possible has been put upon slaves and serfs. Thus the social dishonor in which this class was held was extended to the work they do. There is also the age-long association of knowing and thinking with immaterial and spiritual principles, and of the arts, of all practical activity

> in doing and making, with matter. For work is done with the body, by means of mechanical appliances and is directed upon material things. The disrepute which has attended the thought of material things in comparison with immaterial thought has been transferred to everything associated with practise.

In the face of theory appeared the facts of Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, and Watt. The fact of the steam engine, important as it was, was long ignored but now it is so generally appreciated that a modern Chinese philosopher proposes to divide history into two periods separated by the milestone labeled 1769. In that year Watt performed a feat which had thwarted the mighty Atlas. He lifted the world on his shoulders as he stood in the muck and mire of an outworn civilization and showed the star of economic hope to all mankind. The steam engine abolished human slavery and placed at the service of every man, woman, and child a score of mechanical slaves to provide necessities and luxuries that even kings could not command. Like all other forces steam may be used for evil or for good. Man is free to decide whether Muscle Shoals shall make nitrates for war explosives or nitrates for agricultural fertilizers. The industrial revolution was execrated for its evils but apparently the cure for the evils of machinery is more machinery. Now overproduction, on account of new and improved machinery, is so serious that if consumption is to keep pace it will be necessary to shorten days and weeks, increase wages, and extend the period of school life to eliminate the competition of minors with adults. With the lengthening of school life schools will be forced to provide an education for modern needs. Machinery, science, technology will be emphasized in the new system. What a glorious prospect this program unfolds for the secondary schools. Will they rise to the occasion and give an education suited to the needs of the coming generations? Or will they continue to follow the prescription of the dead hand of antiquity? Will they ignore the teachings of science and machinery? Will the working man be satisfied with a choice between: (1) A narrow education for leisure; and (2) a narrow training for work? The signs seem to indicate that the selfrespecting, selfsupporting man will wish his children to have a third choice, a judicious mixture of science, technology, machinery, and academic subjects.

It is a constant source of wonder that this nation, the home of mass production, the destroyer of the obsolete, should be so slow to utilize the modern. The contrast between the old order and the new is well expressed by Charles Beard in *Whither Mankind:*

> Though machine civilization has been here treated as if it were an order, it in fact differs from all others in that it is highly dynamic, containing within itself the seeds of constant reconstruction. Everywhere agricultural civilizations of the pre-machine age have changed only slowly with the fluctuations of markets, the fortunes of government, and the vicissitudes of knowledge, keeping their basic institutions intact from century to century. Pre-machine urban civilizations have likewise retained their essential characteristics through long lapses of time. But machine civilization based on technology, science, invention, and expanding markets must of necessity change—and rapidly. The order of steam is hardly established before electricity invades it; the electricity hardly gains a fair start before the internal combustion

> engine overtakes it. There has never been anywhere in the world any order comparable with it and all analogies drawn from the middle ages, classical antiquity, and the Orient are utterly inapplicable to its potentialities offering no revelations as to its future.

Why should the secondary schools be concerned with these rapid changes in the economic world? Have these schools a special function to perform in this new civilization? Is there a legitimate demand which the schools should fill? All recent investigations seem to show that there is such a demand and that the schools are not filling it. In nearly every phase of industry there seems to be a serious shortage of technically trained men and women. In the past this demand was met by promotion from the ranks of men with skill but little education. They glorified their lack of education and by making mysterious the socalled secrets of the trade they retarded technical education. The college trained technician and the more practical technician from the high school were derided and made to appear as interlopers. Today industry is becoming so specialized that mere training will not suffice to provide competent supervisors and technicians. Reduction in the number of immigrants means reduction in the number of skilled workers, but fortunately it means an increase in the number of educated American workers, provided the schools accept this opportunity to serve industry through the expansion of technical education. Technological colleges are meeting in a very efficient manner the demand for men of the highest engineering skill, but there is a great demand for technicians on a lower and more practical level. The supervision of production demands a great number of graduates from technical courses and technical high schools, as well as from technical institutes that include the first or second year of college. A report by President William E. Wickenden of the Case School of Applied Science emphasizes this need for technical education.

> Greater efficiency demands that technical education should be diversified to meet a wider variety of individual and industrial needs. To maintain but one type of school is to invite blurring of aims and compromise of standards. Progress is in the direction of schools having more definite purposes and more clearly visualized aims.

Plainly, the new type of course or school must meet specific needs. Europe is dotted with technical schools of all types necessary to meet the demands of industry for technically trained men, and as manufacturing in this country increases in extent and variety many more technical schools will be needed. Already there are ten or fifteen technical schools of secondary grade that have very high rank in scholarship and practical training for industry. These schools were the pioneers in technical education that blazed the way for the forward move which industry now seems ready to take. At a time when faith and hope were their greatest assets they set standards of achievement that force a tribute of admiration today. At a time when narrow trade education was the cry throughout the land they maintained high academic and technical standards, for they realized that the trades themselves would in time demand these higher standards, and that fathers and mothers would object to circumscribing the ambitions of their children by a narrow education. But this small number cannot meet the demand created by the rapid growth of industry. In every large industrial city there will soon be need for several polytechnical schools of secondary grade of the type which provides training in the production and distribution phases of many industries, and in a few of the very large cities there will doubtless be a demand for several mono-technical schools of secondary grade which provide training in all phases of a single industry as production, distribution, testing, applied art, and applied science. In New York City, the center of style in clothing, are more than 700,000 employes in the textile trades. Surely in that city is a demand for a mono-technical high school that will provide technical education for textile workers. Other industries are making similar demands. This demand can not be met by a mere readjustment of courses in the traditional secondary school, for these schools lack industrial and technical atmosphere. The high schools that provide the training and education necessary for "non-commissioned officers of industry" and at the same time leave a real opening at the top for entrance to technological or other colleges are doing a real service to the coming generations. There should be terminal courses for all who are limited by nature to terminal courses but there should always be the outlet to higher education for all who have the desire and the aptitude for higher education.

THE MEANING OF GRADUATION IN THE REORGANIZED SECONDARY SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

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The present conception of secondary-school graduation—If secondary-school graduation no longer means competence in work of a narrowly academic type, what does it mean? Anything or nothing. It means a different thing in the cases of different schools and of different pupils within the same school. The confusion of meaning is most pronounced in those schools which have attempted to provide diversified types of education for youngsters of varying abilities, interests, and needs. It is these schools that Learned had in mind when he wrote that "the pains taken to guard the border-line, not to keep the unfit out, but to keep the tottering pupil in, is one of the anomalies of American education." The truth of Learned's contention will, perhaps, be readily granted.

The conclusion cannot be escaped that secondary-school graduation means merely that the pupil has served time. It is necessary to mention only in passing the wellknown facts overlapping in achievement between grades in the high school, the variability in requirements of work in various curriculums and courses, and the absence of agreement among teachers on standards for determining credits. Failure still eliminates a few of the less competent. For the group as a whole, however, the diploma is not a certificate of competence, but an indication that *incompetence has not been proved.*

Proposals for making graduation meaningful—In the attempt to make graduation meaningful two obvious alternatives are open to us. First, we might attempt to reestablish the theory that secondary education is a high privilege to which only the superior pupils should aspire. We might maintain rigid objective standards for admission, promotion, and graduation. This proposal is essentially the program of the Reform Movement of 1924 in the German Republic. It is not likely to recommend itself to any large proportion of American educators. Second, we might attempt to establish more completely the theory that secondary education should be freely available to all of appropriate age. This alternative would involve conscious recognition that graduation means only that the pupil has attended the secondary school for four or six years. We should have to abandon all idea of failure. Diversity in ability and achievement within a given grade or class would necessarily be even greater than at present. Everyone who persisted would be graduated. This alternative, implied by Counts in his "Selective Character of American Secondary Education," appears to be the logical endpoint of our present tendencies.

Less obvious proposals involve an attempt to gain such advantages as inhere in each of the theories without bringing the theories into conflict in the case of any individual or group. We might, as Learned suggests, segregate the superior pupils as a separate school or as a distinct group within a school, and adopt rigid objective standards for admission, promotion, and graduation in this group. A diploma earned in such a group would have significance.

Closely allied to this proposal for segregation is the suggestion that we create honors groups in secondary schools paralleling those established on the college level at Swarthmore. We could abandon the system of credits for this group. Pupils could be admitted and graduated on the basis of objective evidence of ability, achievement, and social development. Students completing the honors course would be graduated. The other pupils would receive a certificate evidencing the fact that they had served time.

Another proposal is that we adopt the plan of making graduation depend upon the passing of a school-learning examination such as is provided in the European secondary schools. Such an examination might consist of a general examination of the objective type on the social core of the curriculum and an objective examination in the field of the pupil's specialization. To make graduation meaningful, such examinations would need to be formulated by some central agency. Pupils might be permitted to take these examinations whenever they felt competent to do so. In view of the current attitude toward examinations, this proposal is not likely to prove popular, yet there is much to recommend it.

The final proposal is that we eliminate from the secondary school those pupils for whom we are unable, in view of our present knowledge, to provide a type of education which will be worth the time spent either from the point of view of the individual or of the state. Failure would come to mean that the school had failed to provide worthwhile education for the pupil concerned. A failure mark would be a danger signal raising the question of the wisdom of the pupil's further continuance in school. Pupils would not be graduated on the basis of the time spent. The diploma would indicate the fields of study undertaken by the pupil and the testimony of the school that, in its judgment, the expenditure of time and money on the part of the pupil and of the state was justified.

Before we come to conclusions with respect to the merit of these or other proposals for making graduation meaningful we must evaluate them in the light of a theory of American secondary education. I favor the point of view which would open the secondary school theoretically to all—practically to all who have likelihood of profiting by the experience. Such a theory implies great diversity in the types of education provided and corresponding diversity in pupil achievement. If this theory of secondary education is sound, any attempt to develop a standardized meaning for graduation from the secondary school is doomed to failure. The diploma must necessarily represent a different achievement, both qualitatively and quantitatively, in the case of every pupil graduated. The only common ground of meaning for graduation in the secondary school organized in accordance with this theory is the school's belief that secondary education has done something for the pupil which in terms of his abilities, interests, and needs, was worth doing.

FINANCING SECONDARY EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

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The whole problem of financing high schools is tied up in two situations—the inability of some communities to support a fair type of program, taking all of their ability to pay into consideration, and the discriminatory nature of the system of financing schools in those states which are financing government by an outworn tax system. If we were to review the development of tax supported schools we would expect no other situation than that which we find ourselves facing today. The schools in all of our states developed largely as local affairs. They represent more the desire of the individual citizen to give his boy and girl and the children of his neighbor an opportunity for abundant living than for any theoretical service to society itself. Legislation in most of our states on educational matters has been more a response of the state to the urgings of localities than any telic attitude of the state itself. So long as education was not expensive, and so long as our ability to pay was fairly well represented by the amount of property we owned, the system of local support for schools was not bad. With the development of more expensive education, however, radical reorganization is necessary.

What is the answer to the situation which we are facing? In the first place, the answer for the financing of secondary education is the same answer as that for the financing of elementary education. Some workers in this field impressed by the development of independent organizations for financing high schools locally suggest that the answer is in a different type of local organization than that used for elementary schools, or in a different type of state responsibility than that which is recognized for elementary schools.

My own thinking in this field recognizes the importance of proper local organization to the welfare of the school organization, but it denies that the answer to the situation in general can come through a different type of local organization. The answer to the financing of high schools is found in the answer that has been developed for the financing of all public schools. The state has the responsibility for setting up a minimum program of education which will recognize the whole span of education that is fairly universally accepted throughout the state. This we may say, for all of our forty-eight states, takes us from the first grade through the high-school period. The state should make a decent minimum program of education on both the elementary and high-school level available to every boy and girl in the state regardless of where he lives, regardless of whether or not he is of college entrance calibre. Further, the state should so provide that the burden of supporting this program of education should fall upon the people in all localities in the state according to their taxpaying ability. By this means, and by this means only, can high-school opportunities be carried into the poorer sections of the state.

In this aspect of the problem it is necessary for the state to recognize the fact that in actual practise we have found smaller classes and more expensive teachers necessary in high school. Many states at the present time fail to recognize these two facts in their method of participating in the financing of public schools. A measure must be used which is as fair to the high school as to the elementary school, which is as fair to the small high school as to the large high school, which is as fair to the rural school as to the city school.

Such measures are now available, based upon data which cannot be tampered with by local communities and which require no interpretation of a judgment kind from state department officials. These measures take into consideration the fact that high-school education is more expensive than elementary-school education, that a small high school is more expensive than a large high school, and that a rural school must transport pupils. I refer to such measures as are now in operation in the system of financing public schools in the state of New York.

The program which the state should make available to every boy and girl in the state should be the type of program which communities of average wealth are finding it possible to offer. Based upon the analyses that have been made to date, this represents about $2400 per high-school teacher for all current expenses in such states as New York and Pennsylvania. It represents in the neighborhood of $2000 per high-school teacher in such states as Missouri, Nebraska, Kansas, Florida, and Colorado.

From this you may judge the significance of the present movement towards a thoroughgoing refinancing of public schools as it affects high schools. It means that in a state similar to Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, or Colorado, a high school should pay on an average a salary of not less than $1500, and in states such as New York and Pennsylvania, a high school offering the minimum program only should pay teachers an average salary of approximately $2000. These are not standards based upon the practise of outstanding communities which have ability to pay. They are based on practises in those communities which are neither handicapped nor unduly favored by the present inadequate financing system. In other words, they are communities with average ability to pay.

Funds should be available for high schools on this level and comparable funds should be available for elementary schools without exhausting the taxpaying power of any locality. Technics are now readily available to make this an easy task regardless of whether high-school and elementary organization are the same, or whether high-school organization is separate as in Illinois or as in the case of county high schools in many western states. In no case does an adequate financing system demand that a district pay its all before participating in state funds, and in no case does it give a state the right to limit the budget of any district receiving state aid as is now practised in Ohio and Indiana for example.

The difficulty that is faced in all states which do not have an adequate system of taxation and the necessary remedies may be easily described. In most of our states public schools use approximately half of all state and local tax money. Since the public schools in most states are still largely financed through local taxation, this means that the very method of administering taxes demands that the schools shall be supported by property taxpayers.

If we may depend upon the statements of economists to the effect that property is overtaxed in most of our states, it naturally follows that the schools—the most expensive single item of state and local government—not only are handicapped by having to depend upon unfairly taxed individuals, but also must unjustly bear the brunt of the blame for unfair taxation. Naturally the objections which arise strike first at the newer aspects of our educational organization, and the result is that high schools tend to be placed under fire. The solution to this problem can only come from a reorganization of the taxing system such that property taxpayers will no longer carry an unfair share of the total burden of government.

While this at first thought would seem to be merely a matter of tax reform, there are certain aspects of tax reform itself which throw the solution of the difficulty back upon the system of financing the public schools. In the development of tax reform it has been found that no new tax source of any importance lends itself to local administration. All new tax sources of any consequence must be tapped on a state-wide basis. The result is that tax reform brings about a situation where the state has large sums of money available and the localities have no additional money available.

The only way the property tax can be relieved through tax reform is through the assumption by the state of governmental activities formerly carried on by the communities or by a system of distributing returns from state tax sources back to the localities according to some index of the necessary cost of local government. To these two, of course, may be added the lowering of state-wide property tax, a source of relief which is minor compared with the other two mentioned.

There is objection to any great assumption on the part of the state of activities formerly controlled by the communities. There is always the cry of the loss of local selfgovernment, accompanied by the fear that officials far removed from the public hand will develop expensive types of government which will, in the long run, increase rather than decrease taxes. The most outstanding example of assumption of state responsibility for activities formerly considered local is the building of highways by the state. While vast sums are being put into highways from state sources, the amount of relief involved is not as significant as one would at first believe. The reason is that the greater part of such funds are being expended for new capital outlays rather than for the relief of taxes already being paid by the localities. In other words, this movement relieves the localities of desirable new expenditures, but does not, to any great degree, relieve the localities of the actual tax burdens from which they are now suffering.

There is no single branch of government in which the way is clear for state assumption of responsibility to a sufficient degree to result in real tax relief except public education. In the case of public education, we now can propose means by which the state may take over the financing of any desired share of the cost of the state's minimum program without unduly increasing state control and without the unfairness that has been experienced from the rule-of-thumb methods used for the distribution of state moneys both to education in the past and to other branches of government. Today we have measures of the needs of communities for that part of local government which is by far greater than all other local government combined—measures which are not subject to local manipulation or to bureaucratic domination. We find, then, in the system developed for financing the public school system, the most feasible vehicle for bringing about a readjustment of the burden of taxation upon various tax sources.

A recent statement by the Kansas Tax Code Commission brings out this point in an excellent manner. Referring to a scientific plan of financing the public schools that was developed by a legislative commission known as the School Code Commission, the Tax Commission says:

> The plan proposed to the state by the School Code Commission has been carefully studied by our own commission in its relation to the subject of taxes. We are satisfied that the plan the Commission has prepared supplies the right place for the allocation of whatever revenue is obtained from new sources, up to eight million dollars, the amount that meets the need of an equalized educational program. . . .
>
> An allocation of the revenue from the proposed new sources of revenue—the gross production tax, income tax, and sales tax if adopted—to the school code plan accomplishes two objects: It will finance the code plan to whatever extent revenue is produced; and it assures, what in the Commission's judgment is a vital matter, that the new revenues will not be an added tax burden.
>
> This matter of the allocation of new revenue is difficult without the code plan. The only other use that the commission sees for the proposed new revenue is to allocate it to the general fund of the state, and this does not offer any guaranty that it will not be an added tax upon the people.
>
> It should be kept in mind that new sources are not desired merely to obtain larger funds from taxpayers. The new sources are recommended entirely on other grounds; namely, that they distribute the tax burden more widely, bring in new taxpayers, and so relieve present taxpayers who are carrying the support of the government. It is essential that for every dollar raised by new sources a dollar should be saved to present tax bearers. . . .
>
> For the above reasons the Commission strongly recommends allocation of revenues from new taxpayers and new and now untaxed ability to pay taxes, to the school code plan.

In short, through a scientific revision of our system of financing public schools we can bring about relief of the major difficulties facing the financing of high schools in American states. One of these difficulties is the inability of the poorer areas of a state to finance an adequate high-school program even with prohibitive tax rates, and the other is the unfair criticism that comes to high schools as the most obvious target for the property taxpayer who is carrying an unfair share of the burden of state and local government.

JUNIOR COLLEGE IN THE STATE'S PROGRAM OF EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

THOMAS LLOYD JONES, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, WIS.

I favor, as a means of extending the opportunities and the influences of our great state universities, wherever conditions warrant, the organization of one or more junior colleges to be operated and controlled by the state university; each junior college to be under the direction of a dean or a director, to be appointed by the president with the approval of the board of regents. The junior college fees shall be the same as those charged freshmen and sophomores at the mother institution. The teachers assigned to a junior college will be members of the faculty of the university and with equal privileges as to rank and salary and tenure. This will insure continuity and quality and range of work, for the faculty of any real university constitute the living force. The young men and young women who would be enroled in these junior colleges would have the advantages of the university with a varied program of studies and with connections ahead. The dormitory system of the university would be duplicated for each junior college. The cost of living for the first two years of university life would be less at the junior college than at the mother institution and this without a lowering of efficiency. In fact, there are reasons for believing that the net results might even be raised.

I do not believe all the charges made against our high schools nor against our colleges and universities. Idealism still exists in abundance, as evidenced by the general attitude maintained by our state universities, our colleges and by this organization. We now have in practically all our state universities at least a three-fold duty. Productive scholarship is emphasized and as a result, the field of knowledge is enlarged; education, of the highest type possible with the facilities at hand, is offered; and by extension work of broad type, education is carried to the state. The state really becomes a campus.

The establishment of junior colleges connected with our state universities would give to a greater number of young men and young women the advantage of a university, provide better preparation for the advanced work of the senior college, and at the same time reduce the cost in money and in nervous energy of the first two years of university work. Existing colleges need not be disturbed. There is more work to be done than we can do. If we keep our eyes on the needs of young people, forms of organization will be evolved.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IN THE STATE'S PROGRAM OF EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

GEORGE F. ZOOK, PRESIDENT OF AKRON UNIVERSITY, AKRON, OHIO

Some of our friends in the field of elementary and secondary education are a bit alarmed at the establishment of junior colleges in local centers for fear that it may have an adverse effect on the amount of money available for elementary and secondary education. I presume there are possible examples of this situation. I don't believe I have ever seen any of them. I think that I would be entirely willing to agree, however, that a local school system should not establish a junior college until its system of elementary and high-school education is fully standard in all respects.

However, the benefits of education to the public, whether elementary, secondary or higher are so patent and the success of the three so interdependent that I scarcely see how one can be restricted without affecting the others vitally. Of course we must have elementary and secondary schools as the basis for all our development in higher education but we know now better than ever before that not only are the schools dependent on the higher institutions for trained teachers and administrators but that other public and private agencies are leaning more heavily on the colleges and universities for trained men and women than in former years. All forms of education are, therefore, equally a wise public investment. Wherever there is a probable attendance of 250 or more students I believe that a community is under the same solemn obligation to offer junior college work to its young people as it is to offer them the earlier years of their education.

Therefore, my system of junior-college education would be established in the closest possible correlation with the local high schools of every community in which the demand justified this work. The administration, teaching personnel, and physical facilities of the two would be knit together in a close correlation which would do away with the duplication of subject-matter and the consequent misunderstanding now existing between the high schools and the colleges. If the local public school system was a county unit it would obviously be all the better. I would not, of course, abate one whit from the high standard of freshman and sophomore work which the present four-year colleges assert, not always convincingly, that they perform.

What about the standards for these junior colleges? Our large cities are now generally in advance of the minimum standards of the state relative to the secondary schools. So, too, they would be with respect to most junior colleges. On the other hand, the state department of education would of course be under the same solemn obligation to require a standard grade of work in the junior colleges as in the high schools. Indeed, this would be one of the main aspects of an acceptable state system of junior colleges. Our friends in California are perhaps more active through their state department of education than is true of any other state in the union. The state universities also exert a powerful influence in the same direction. Finally, the regional accrediting agencies are very helpful in raising the standards of junior college performance.

How shall this system of public junior colleges be supported? After all, is not the cost of a junior college which does work comparable with that of the present good four-year colleges, prohibitive? There can be no question but that the community should bear the entire expense of buildings and other capital expenditures. The property must belong to the educational unit with which the junior college is identified. Nothing else in my opinion is feasible.

To what extent the local school unit should also be responsible for current expenses is another question. So long as the state as such accepts the responsibility for the expense of junior college education in its own state institutions, so long can a very good case be made out for an equal measure of state support in the local public junior colleges.

What should junior college education cost per student? Professor Reeves thinks that "a thoroughly effective junior college of 250 or more students should expect to have a cost per student of approximately $340 per year." Mr. H. F. Clark found in 1927 that the median cost per student of 38 junior colleges was $208. Professor Proctor states that the per capita costs in the California junior colleges range from $200 to $450. Professor Koos recently found that among the 30 junior colleges in California the median teaching cost, which was about two-thirds of the total cost, was approximately $200 per capita. From these illustrations it seems clear that a junior college of 200 or more students should not expect to conduct itself on less than $300 per capita.

Where will this money be secured from? I have already stated my conviction that the state should subsidize the local junior colleges. California is now of course the outstanding example of such state subsidies. There are several plans in vogue there which vary according to the type of junior college. Nevertheless, in that state subsidies not to exceed $100 per student in addition to an initial allowance of $2000 per junior college are made to districts which conduct junior colleges. In 1927-28 the total amount of state funds allotted to junior colleges in California was $308,800. The junior colleges of Michigan and Minnesota share in state funds which are distributed for secondary education. Bills providing state subsidies of $100 per student for local junior colleges have failed in recent years in Kansas and Colorado.

This statement is, however, no measure of the support of the several states for other forms of higher education carried on by municipal authorities. For example, the three municipal teacher-training institutions located in St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph received from the state of Missouri $405,000 for the last biennium. The city teacher-training institutions in New York, Rochester, and Syracuse receive $317,000 for the current year from the state of New York. Similar bills have been introduced into the Ohio legislature providing state subsidies to the three municipal universities of Akron, Toledo, and Cincinnati in support of their teacher-training work.

There is, therefore, the strongest argument both from logic and precedent for state subsidies to local junior colleges. At the time I carried on the survey of higher education in Massachusetts it seemed to me that it ought not to be less than ninety percent of the current cost. Certainly it should be as much as one-half the current cost or not less than $150 per student.

There is another source of revenue which public junior colleges have almost overlooked, namely student fees. The fees charged by local junior colleges in almost all instances are so low as to be negligible. With this practise I do not altogether agree. State universities and colleges now quite generally charge student fees varying in amount from $50 to $100 per student, sometimes higher. It has already been said that students who live at home while attending college can do so for at least $200 less than those who go away from home not including the differences in the fees payable at a state university as against a local junior college. The total difference in cost will, therefore, easily amount to $300 per year.

A student attending a local junior college can, therefore, pay a substantial sum toward the cost of his education at a local junior college and yet secure his education at a considerable reduction in cost over those who go away from home to college.

It should be remembered, too, that the junior college student has arrived at an age when during the summer and at odd hours in the afternoon or evening he can easily earn all or substantially all of his expenses while attending a local junior college. If in these expenses there is included a substantial amount for fees, he may appreciate more fully the value of an education.

Finally, it may be pointed out that the municipal universities in most cases have long ago followed the example of the state institution in charging substantial fees. The University of Cincinnati charges both residents and non-residents of the city a substantial tuition fee for engineering and commerce. The City College of Detroit and the Universities of Wichita, Louisville, Akron, and Cincinnati, impose fees ranging from $60 to $75 on all students enroled in Liberal Arts. At the University of Toledo the maintenance fee is still low. Only at the City College of New York is there practically no cost to the student.

I see no reason, therefore, why the local junior colleges should not levy a substantial fee on all students enroled in the institution. Fifty dollars per annum would certainly not be too much.

It goes without saying, I take it, that in addition to the regular maintenance fee students living outside the junior college district should pay tuition. This tuition less the per capita state subsidy should ultimately fall on the school district from which the student comes. Inasmuch as non-residents may easily comprise from 15 to 40 percent of the total enrolment the tuition of this group may easily become an important item in the budget. In 1927-28 Professor Whitney found that in 47 public junior colleges located in seven states the average percent of students living outside the junior college district was approximately 24 percent. Professor Holy at about the same time found in 40 public junior colleges that the average percent of students non-resident in the junior college district was slightly over 30 percent.

There is also no reason why the local junior college may not be the recipient of such splendid gifts as recently came to the junior college at Little Rock, Arkansas.

Finally, there is the community itself from which junior colleges have so far received the most of their support. On account of the advantages of a local institution the community may well in addition to the capital outlay bear a portion of the current expense. In a junior college having a per capita cost of $300 I have suggested a state subsidy of $150 with $50 per capita from the student himself. This leaves $100 per capita for the community to bear except in the case of non-residents paying tuition. Such a division of expense would seem to have advantages for all parties concerned. The state would be paying only about one-third or one-fourth of what it would cost to have the student attend a state institution. The student is at far less expense than if he went away from home to college. The family has the satisfaction of close contact with the student during two critical and impressionable years of his life. The community has a local institution in which it may take pride and in which it may expect its citizens to secure general and technical training for the development of local industry and civic life.

May I conclude then by saying that a state system of junior colleges will make junior-college education, the same as elementary and secondary education, accessible to as large a proportion of the population as can be done economically. It is essential that these junior colleges should become an integral part of a local secondary school system. Hence all capital outlay should be made by the local public schools. Current expenses should be met through local taxation, student fees, and a state subsidy which should be not less than 50 percent of the total expense. There should be a central state agency, perhaps the state department of education, with both the authority and the disposition to require proper standards of performance.

If this is a true analysis of the situation, it is evident that much remains to be done in almost every state in the union, even those which have established junior colleges, before we shall secure the results we hope for. Only California seems to be near the proper solution. Let those, therefore, who are interested in the fortunes of this new unit in education which seems to promise so much do what they can to secure the establishment of state systems of junior colleges on bases that are both economical and pedagogically sound.

STANDARDS AND FREEDOM IN THE SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

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A conflict has arisen in our high schools that is momentous for the welfare of the nation. The issue is simple but fundamental. It is likely to divide not only school men but the public, for it involves taxation, economy in public expenditure, and a definition of the duty of the state in education. In its furthest reaches the battle will be waged not only in the councils of the teachers but in the assemblies of the people and their representatives; yet at the heart of it the fight concerns a question that is obviously technical—to wit: What standards shall our high schools set and hold, even to the ultimate exclusion of those who cannot or who will not meet them?

Those who think of education first of all as a service to the individual, who want the school to fit the child not only in the elementary grades, when children are unfolding and developing, but all along the line, who would make of the high school mainly a gateway of opportunity for the betterment of social and vocational status in the individual case—all these will answer that standards have no final place in education anyway, that none should ever be excluded, that our democratic faith demands the free public education of every child and youth as long as he will stay in school.

The party of the other part will make the most of standards. It may admit that educational opportunity should be various and rich, that many roads should be open to the student in the secondary school and in the college, and that no clear case of grit and power should go unrewarded by some form of scholastic approval. But it will argue for curriculums that are definite, consistent, and directed toward clear and valuable objectives, from which unquestioned standards may be drawn. It will be concerned to guarantee accomplishment. Merely to retain a child in school is not, to those of this persuasion, an important matter; for it may mean waste of public money, waste of the child's time, and the fostering of low ideals and wrong habits of work. For the sake of standards this party would accept the loss entailed in forcing the child out of school or out of one curriculum into another. The schools, this group insists, are a selective agency; they fail in their mission unless they redistribute human talent, not only on the basis of interest and ambition, but also on the basis of achievement.

The issue may be stated fairly in these terms, and undoubtedly it is upon us. How to meet it is a much less simple matter. I am urging in this article a halt in the present trend toward freedom. Our practise, I believe, has run beyond our power to serve the individual without the sacrifice of public interest. It is time to insist upon the importance of standards and to see clearly the harm that we are doing and the greater harm we yet may do, if we ignore this aspect of our problem. Our present standards are unquestionably low.

I am not here concerned to ask what should be done to change the situation. Perhaps our programs should be greatly simplified, our curriculums defined with greater exactness and begun at an earlier time, our guidance in the choice of courses based on accurate knowledge of the pupil's powers, our teachers better prepared for their work. It seems to me that we must first make sure in our own minds that standards matter more than all the partial goods that may accrue from crowded schools, smatterings of this subject and of that, extra-curriculum activities, and complicated educational machinery. "When the half-gods go, the gods arrive."

A false view of democracy is now at work, it seems to me, throughout our schools. It calls upon us to accept three postulates, closely related to each other and all inimical to standards. The first is that the individual has a right to education as long as he is willing to remain in school, quite irrespective of his own accomplishment. The second is that schools may be rated as to their success in proportion to the number of pupils they retain upon their rolls. The third is that we should equalize opportunity in education by letting any pupil undertake the study of any subject, giving him credit toward graduation if he does a little in some part of it, and making it easy in general for pupils to match together small units of credit for a required numerical total.

The first of these postulates has intimate relation to the doctrine of the natural rights of man. It is good public policy to offer extended education at the public cost; but has any pupil the right to go on in school unless he is doing well enough to assure the public that the cost is justified? Lowering standards to let the least competent get by is not the way to justify increases in the public funds available for schooling. The thing to do first is to decide on objects, aims, and ends, and then define the means by which they may be attained and the standards that witness their attainment. The objects may be cultural, vocational, or civic; standards may vary; and educational materials may be infinitely different. But the whole thing ought not to slump down into an admission that there is nothing to be done in school except to let a pupil stay by right, no matter what he is accomplishing.

The second postulate might properly be called the doctrine of success by quantity. It implies the theory of mass production. The more children the better, and education means keeping them in school. It is true that if we seek to measure the success of a school system we must ask how many pupils it retains; but that in itself is only a fact in the premises, not a measure of the success of the system. It is conceivable that a system of schools might be held to fail of full success for the very reason that it had not eliminated a larger number of pupils. We may be proud to keep children eagerly and profitably at work in school beyond the period of compulsion; but can we say that even a majority within the secondary schools are working, as things stand, with eagerness and profit; I think we have yielded to a snobbishness that runs deep in American life and have refused to set up vocational curriculums because we have confused equality of opportunity with the idea that everybody should be "as good" as everybody else and, therefore, entitled to study the same subjects. Vocational curriculums are not absent from our schools, to be sure; but are they solid enough, direct enough in their reference to vocational efficiency, broad enough in their basis and background, and generally so dignified and well regarded, that we may be sure that pupils may rightly be urged or even compelled to choose them when they are not doing well in academic courses or when they are obviously better fitted for work of a vocational intent? If we want to use retention in school as a measure of school success we must see to it that retention means retention with resulting profit.

The third postulate is the doctrine of flexibility based on the demand for equality of opportunity. In a competitive economic system—that is, in a democratic economic system, as contrasted with a socialistic system—we must reckon with differences in wealth as a permanent feature of the social situation, and free public education beyond the compulsory limit is one means of minimizing inequalities of fortune and opening careers to talent. We will not let the poor boy suffer total loss of opportunity, because we have no faith in the fairness with which our wealth is spread among us: we refuse to credit the notion that wealth means merit, or ability, or social purpose, and that those who have it not should not be educated. We also refuse, of course, to interfere with the private possession of property or to make any drastic attempt to equalize incomes. The schools we view as an arrangement for achieving a kind of rough justice, an equity that is not otherwise guaranteed by our social arrangements and our economic system. If wealth does not flow toward merit, education shall at least give merit its due chance.

It must be obvious that such a view of things involves the clearest recognition of differences in power and achievement. Democracy refuses to accept the task of making everybody equal. It is only socialism that would make our incomes equal—if it could. It is only science and the great humanity that lies behind it that would try to make us equal—or more nearly equal—in our native powers. Those who want the school to achieve equality of opportunity by ignoring differences, letting everybody have the name of being as capable as anybody else, lowering standards to let the least able graduate from the most "acceptable" curriculum, maintaining flexibility at the expense of continuity and well-defined achievement—these are not democrats in education, but either socialists or sentimentalists.

THE CRY, MORE EDUCATION FOR LESS MONEY: ONE ANSWER, THE CLEVELAND CURRICULUM—ABSTRACT

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When the first junior high schools were formed in Cleveland, pupils from grades seven and eight in the elementary schools and grade nine in the senior high schools were collected together in one building or department of a building. The curriculum and the teachers of the older schools were brought along with the pupils. Teaching, however, was departmentalized. Also, curriculum changes began to be made at once. At first these changes were limited to the addition of new subjects and new elements to old subjects, or the pushing of old subjects into grades where they were new.

Foreign languages, social problems, general science, manual art, mechanical drawing, home economics, printing, commercial work, and vocational information came "in" or "down."

Music, art, physical education, hygiene, and even mathematics, were given a new turn.

The average junior high-school pupil came to recite 31 periods a week, and many recited 40 periods.

During the fifteen years since the junior high schools of Cleveland first got under way, the needs of children, the needs of the entire city, and the possibilities of supplying these needs through old subjects or new, or new combinations of subjects, were studied along with the intelligence and achievement of pupils.

These studies eventuated in the spring of 1929 in a new curriculum which subtracts many titles and one and two-period-a-week courses from the curriculum. It also subtracts, on the average, three recitation periods a week from each pupil's program.

One example of the process of collecting scattered courses under one head is the new social studies course in which history, geography, civics, occupational information, and current events are reorganized as one unified course taught to all pupils one period every day or five times a week.

Tests and measurements reveal the fact that achievements are higher; and financial accounting, that expenditures for teaching are lower.

The full effect of the improvements in instruction and savings may not be felt for some years to come. However, results to date are encouraging, and administrative persistence is bringing the reward: a little more education for a little less money.

SOME ASPECTS OF VITALIZED READING FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

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A friend of mine, whose daughter, nine years old, is now reading the *Pickwick Papers* because she has seen her father enjoying the volume and found it lying in a comfortable chair, assures me that many habits of good reading are the result—like love and marriage—of propinquity. This indicates the first aspect of vitalized reading in junior high schools. This element of propinquity should be introduced for the pupils. Books should be made easily available so that every pupil will virtually burst forth as did this one in a 7-B class.

> I want to tell you how happy we were a few weeks ago to see books, books, and still more books being brought into our room. Even before our teacher told us we knew that they were supplementary readers and we are anticipating great pleasure in reading and discussing them.

The first endeavor should be to induce among pupils that kind of familiarity with books which produces content—not contempt. When pupils may stretch out and easily touch, handle, and use books, they will be matters of so much delight and information to them that it should be easy to obtain from them the same kind of discriminating response that we expect from adults.

Balloting on everything is, of course, the great American pastime. Schools reflect this practise or can be made to reflect it very easily. Answering questionnaires and casting ballots will help to vitalize the reading of the most usual kind. These are the choices in one large cosmopolitan city's high school of pupils in the 9-B section—mainly boys.

The 9-B's voted on the four books they were assigned for outside reading this last term. Out of the votes cast, *Treasure Island* came first, having 84 votes. *Captains Courageous* came next with 83. *Kidnapped* was third with 36 votes. *Typee* came in last with 9 votes.

For second choice *Treasure Island* led again, having 73 votes, *Kidnapped,* second with 51 votes, *Captains Courageous,* third with 34 votes, *Typee* again was last, having 13 votes.

Third choice is altogether different. *Typee* with 23 votes led. *Kidnapped* came in second with 13 votes; *Treasure Island,* third with 7 votes, and *Captains Courageous* was last with one.

Captains Courageous and *Typee* were not read by all the classes, so that probably accounts for a lower number of votes on these books.

Notice the choices; stories of active adventure, lives of suspense, producing bated breath by making everything come out right for the heroes in the last chapters. Or look at the choices in another school, quite different from the one just cited.

Out of three books read in all 9-B English classes, 234 pupils chose *Lady of the Lake* as first choice and *Midsummer Night's Dream* and *The Boyhood of a Naturalist* nip and tuck with 54 and 53 respectively.

Notice here that even after having taught *The Lady of the Lake,* these pupils gave it first choice! Of course, it is hardly necessary to recall to this audience that *Lady of the Lake* is not taught now as it was in our school days. You and I very likely had to parse something in nearly every line. Teachers know better than to mangle a stirring story in that manner now. Yet even with all this sophistication and rapidity of modern youths teachers must at times move slowly in order to know that pupils understand what they are reading.

Let us turn aside from the schoolroom for a minute to contemplate the adult reading habits of the American people. One of the things that disturbs me most is to hear a middle-aged or elderly person complain that no longer do Americans read as persons did when he was young. Such a person will lament that no longer do people revel in Charles Dickens. This person is merely neglecting or blinding himself to the actual facts. To settle the Dickens matter once and for all, may I say that there are from 180,000 to 200,000 novels by Dickens sold every year. Remember, too, that this sale has been going on for some three-quarters of a century. Or if you feel that the weight of classic choice is behind the story by Dickens, let me cite another title. I do not know the latest figures, but some time ago the publishers informed me that more than 600,000 copies of *Main Street* had been sold. That sale means more than $1,000,000 worth of business in that single title alone. Perhaps a dozen books sell from 100,000 to 200,000 copies every year.

You must not think that only works of fiction sell in such great numbers. Americans have spent more than $20,000,000 for sets of books. They may not have read more than two or three volumes of the set, but whatever they read in that collection was of extremely high quality. You are all aware of the amazing vogue for biography during the last several years. In 1928 more biographies were published in the United States than books of any other kind. True, in 1929, the pendulum swung back and fiction led, but biography and another class of informative material, popular science, were not very far below. Librarians' figures will support our belief in the reading habits of the general public. One librarian reported that he had to buy 49 copies of *The Outline of History* by Wells; 41 copies of *Arrowsmith* by Lewis; and at the same time he had to buy 90 copies of *Poems* by Tennyson. Of course, too, we know of the recent marvel of book selling with the enormous success of Will Durant's *Story of Philosophy*. A few months after it had appeared, I sat in the office of the two young publishers who told me they were almost holding their breath—they could not believe it was true. This same firm has had almost as phenomenal a sale with *The Art of Thinking* by the Abbé Dimnet.

To illustrate further the enormous amount of reading material purchased by the American public, I might cite the circulation figures of the magazines. One instance will suffice. Just a few days ago in the editorial offices of the *Literary Digest* I was informed that each weekly run is at least 1,600,000 copies. Think what that means in a month! It is no unusual thing for an American book firm to put into circulation more than three-quarters of a million volumes in a year. I sometimes tell pupils in the high schools that there are only about twelve thousand different books published in the United States in a year, so all they have to do in order to keep up is to read a thousand books a month.

If adult reading is so alert, so active, so continuous, is it reflected in the schools of the country? Every fact indicates that it is.

Pupil choices are not very far removed from the choices of adults. One questionnaire answered by hundreds of pupils showed that 226 would choose first mystery and detective stories; only 124 school and college stories; but, here is an amazing fact—a fact that now, well known to publishers, is occasioning a great deal of concern to their juvenile departments—only 102 preferred books designed deliberately for boys and girls. Publishers tell me that they will devote in their juvenile departments most of their attention to the books for the younger children, feeling that school influence is leading pupils in their 'teens to stretch upwards towards books designed primarily for adults. Is this not an encouraging sign if the boy of fourteen wants to read, is able to read, is led to read the books designed for the person of twenty? In schools of my own jurisdiction there are pupils who insist on reading the stronger plays of Eugene O'Neill and even the intricate novels of Marcel Proust. To return to the questionnaire, the most encouraging thing about it was that a grand total of 346 boys and girls chose first history, biography, poetry, and travel.

It appears to me that all the varied activity of reading in the junior high schools falls naturally into three main classifications: First, we consider the kind of reading for gathering the author's full thought. This is sometimes called intensive reading. There are some great books worthy of being studied, worth being known, packed with information, full of emotional experiences. These justify the time and attention put upon them. Of course, the trouble is that the old-fashioned teacher may worry them as a dog worries a bone. They can serve, however, to increase the reach of pupils, to extend their horizons, to widen their interests, to deepen their emotions, to develop their lives.

The second kind of reading I like to call research reading. It is a difficult kind for the young pupil to exercise, but it is extremely valuable, not only in English but in other subjects as well. It is peculiarly valuable in later life. It means reading by topics, by sections, by selections; it means developing the ability to get to the heart of the article; it means being able to recognize what is of value, what not; it means reading and comparing; it is the kind of reading we ask now in junior high schools for reports, for investigations, for committees.

The third kind of reading is rapid reading. It serves all the purposes of work and leisure. It begins in school, it continues in school, it continues through all life. I like to group all kinds of reading in two other ways. The first is the learning how to read; a slow and difficult process. The second is exercise in the practise of reading, and once the art has been acquired for any level of the pupil's development, schools should provide both kinds of reading.

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM—ABSTRACT

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The junior high school expresses a changing conception of education. This new type of school is characterized by tolerant, friendly, and spontaneous relationships among pupils and teachers and parents and other members of the school communities. It offers opportunities and encouragement to the creative aspirations of all the adventurous spirits of the school community. It exemplifies those aspects of democracy and Americanism which promise most for the present and for the future. It is an adventure in common purposes and in their fulfillment through individual endeavor.

Naturally, not all junior high schools are successful in taking advantage of the opportunities which their newness offers. Before they can modify their philosophy of education and develop behavior-patterns adequate for this new American institution, teachers and administrators find themselves faced with practical problems of organization and instruction. To meet these immediate needs, curriculum practises are often borrowed from the conventional elementary and high schools with which teachers and parents are familiar and feel secure. As a result, there is a danger that traditional practises may become intrenched in the curriculum. In this case, old wine is being poured into new bottles.

Too frequently there is thus lost much of the psychological advantage which might accrue from the newness and experimental nature of the junior high school. If, however, pioneering principals and faculties are resourceful, they will find that the internal organization of the new institution offers a favorable situation for seriously conceived plans closely related to a clear educational philosophy of administration. Here we can "shunt our educational machinery during this particular three year period into the field of diagnosing and consciously exercising . . . the individualities of pupils."[1]

The impulse and desire of children at the dawn of adolescence to live their own lives, to be themselves, to be emancipated from mothering and meticulous instruction, will, if thwarted by rigid curriculum practises, result in distorted personalities and unfortunate behavior difficulties. The successful curriculum will provide opportunities for each pupil to have a share in selecting his own work, to follow and develop his worthy individualistic, avocational interests, and to complete these self-accepted tasks for the sense of mastery, the joy of accomplishment, and the approval of his fellows.

In a world of ever accelerating change, defenders of things as they have been are unhappy. But no less miserable are those who long for a happy day when problems will be no more. Not by desire or argument or precept or jeremiad can the world be made to our liking. Rather is there needed a resolute sustained effort to understand the interplay of institutions and social forces.

In the light of such a sympathetic appreciation of the difficulties that beset schools of every grade—and many collateral institutions as well—we shall be loath to assess blame on any one of them. We shall find that many of the same problems face schools of all levels, as well as the church, scouts, playground commissions, settlements, and parents. We shall discover that earnest and resourceful leaders in all social institutions are urging and actually making similar adjustments.

Disappointment at the results attained by high schools, political government and the church is widespread. Skepticism, even cynicism, is rampant. Public confidence is weakening. The maintenance of the generous appropriations for secondary education and for all other governmental instruments of social welfare is increasingly difficult.

Nevertheless, education is "the only survivor of the whole chest of hopes man used to have, religious and political." "It belongs," continues William Bolitho, "to us more distinctively even than to the Renaissance of the Greeks." Continued support for secondary education will be forthcoming if we do not disgust the public with our internal bickering. This is no time for divided camps. Success can come only through earnest coöperation.

Let us, then seek positive articulation, correlation, and reënforcement with the positive programs of each of these institutions. Only so can our work possibly be done—even at best and with the heartiest and most intelligent cooperation, failure is not improbable.

Twelve major opportunities for such positive coöperative effort among educational institutions may be stated:

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[1] Johnston, C. H., Newlon, J., and Pickell, F. G. *Junior-Senior High School Administration.* Scribner's Sons, 1922.

1. The attention of schoolmen at every level and in every type of institution should be directed to the similarities of their problems and their attempted solutions of these problems. Thus, progressive colleges, senior high schools, junior high schools, vocational, continuation, and evening schools, and private secondary schools are all striving earnestly to build up student morale and student participation in the approved social activities of the institutions. Articulations on this plane should be easy to make. Too often, nevertheless, little knowledge or sympathetic interest is shown by the faculties of one institution in the social programs of the others.

2. Each of the institutions named above has already established or is now establishing, a system of advisement and guidance. Unfortunately, however, the counselling procedures and results of one institution are seldom exploited by others. Pupils who have selected art or music or commercial subjects as a result of careful guidance in the junior high school are encouraged to change their elections when they enter senior high school "because they will need Latin to get to college." Such advice is both false and disruptive.

3. The flexibility and enrichment of the curriculums of each unit have increased amazingly. The recognition of individual needs, individual enthusiasms, and individual capacities has in every case led to such reforms. With depressing regularity many teachers at each level vociferously disapprove of the tendencies in the lower levels, and many teachers of the lower levels are seemingly unaware of the new liberality of the higher institutions.

4. Many high-school principals and prominent college graduates seldom think of education in any broad sense of the term. College entrance certificates and examinations in academic subjects, intercollegiate and interscholastic athletics, and "social behaviors" of boys and girls seem to absorb all of their capacity to think educationally.

5. Honors, other than the conventional and extrinsic ones—marks, promotions, graduations and certificates—are being bestowed by schools and colleges. School insignia, character ratings, health certificates, and honor society memberships gained by pupils in the lower school should be formally recognized by colleges and senior high schools.

6. Outside the school and college, life goes on apace—modifying, for good or for ill, the attitudes, aspirations, and conduct of youths and adults. Seldom has the junior or senior high school more than a selective or corrective effect on the social behaviors of pupils. A positive, constructive program must reenforce, guide, and direct the activities of children in their out-of-school lives as well as their scholastic behaviors.

7. Specific mal-articulations occur between junior and senior high schools frequently in three subjects: Latin, mathematics, and English grammar. Frank discussions by representatives of junior-high and senior-high-school teachers of each subject together with the superintendent of schools and the principals of the schools concerned might quickly decrease the misunderstandings and conflicts.

8. Adequate cumulative records should be universal and should be understood and used by the officers of senior high schools and colleges. Such records should show, in addition to scholarship marks:

a. Pupils' abilities and needs and their improvements
b. Participation in clubs, student government, service squads, home room organization, athletic teams, musical organizations, journalistic enterprises, and other student activities sponsored by the school
c. Active participation and leadership in extra-school organizations—scouts, musical, and dramatic organizations
d. Partime jobs, including home occupations
e. Vacations and other leisure time interests and occupations
f. Emotional characteristics.

9. Wide and insistent publicity is needed regarding actual college entrance requirements. Much, perhaps most, of the socalled difficulties involved in college admissions exist only in the minds of overcautious, ignorant, or inert high-school principals and advisers.

Professional, parental, and college alumni protests should be focused on three evils which undoubtedly do exist:

- a. Some colleges refuse to recognize bona-fide subjects, such as general science, community civics, and general language.
- b. Colleges base their selection on such abstract subjects as mathematics, foreign languages, and English grammar which many capable adolescents are unwilling to exert themselves to master.
- c. Some colleges will not grant advanced credit for subjects carried beyond the elementary stages in secondary schools.

10. Unsympathetic teachers are too often assigned to the classes which students enter from the lower institutions; viz., freshman classes in college, tenth-grade classes in senior high schools. Such placement of teachers is viciously stupid. Senior high-school principals and college administrators should be warned of the inevitable disharmonies and injustices which follow this practise.

11. "Dull" pupils who have succeeded in junior high schools because of homogeneous grouping are often unsuccessful in heterogeneous classes in senior high school.

Publicity and propaganda should be promoted for the rights of the socalled dull pupil (*dull* only, perhaps, in the sense that he has little abstract verbalistic intelligence).

12. Superintendents and boards of education which have approved the establishment of junior high schools and special type schools must be encouraged to define clearly their functions. Misunderstandings frequently arise because such a definition is lacking or is not known to the faculties and administrators of the schools concerned.

Conclusion—Let us frankly face the bitter truth. No school at any time has ever taught the majority of its pupils the scholastic skills and informations of which our academicians boast. A few youths who were peculiarly fitted by original nature, by interests, or by social pressures have learned these things. The rest bluffed their way through, crammed up and passed examinations, or dropped the subjects. Connor and Ashbaugh have shown this to be true for written English. Brown for Latin, Funk for social science. Almost regardless of time spent in study, years of instruction, special methods, quality of teaching, some youths know and do what their subjects are set up to teach—and some *do not.*

To depend on the assumed inherent values of academic subjects for the education of children is to lean on a broken reed. Most pupils never attain a mastery of an academic subject, and nearly all soon lose such degree of mastery as they may have attained. To them, subject mastery belongs to the artificial category of "things which belong to Caesar"—a tax to be paid to gain the right to remain in school.

Only as the curriculum, at the levels both of junior and of senior high schools, consists of meaningful activities through which facts, habits, and attitudes may develop is there much hope of permanency of learning.

Slowly, but inevitably, there is emerging from our experiences with youths and with life, from our truly scientific researchers, from our pioneering experimental schools, and from our unshackled philosophy of education, a glorious new conception and evaluation of the functions and products of the school. We are coming to realize that attitudes and desires of children are of much more significance than are present knowledges and skills. The sponsors of this emerging curriculum would teach some subjects; they would be guided by social analyses; and they would decidedly depend on purposeful activities.

With Emerson, however, they would recognize that: "Books are good only so far as a boy is ready for them. . . . Archery, cricket, gun and fishing-rod, horse and boat, are all educators, literalizers; and so are dancing, dress, and the street talk."[1] . . .

In the curriculum-emergent there is little fear that children will not learn enough. Its practises are based on the assumptions that if they are enlivened first, if they enjoy learning, if the adventure of discovery has an appeal, then will they spend their lives learning and investigating and reflecting and experimenting. In a word, the curriculum-emergent, at all school levels, involves present satisfying practises of the social objectives themselves—home-membership, citizenship, leisure-time activities, health practises, and, in a somewhat less conscious way, the attributes uderlying vocational success and ethical character.

Because the pupils are thus enthusiastically and successfully engaging in the dynamic experiences of community life, they themselves develop emerging personalities. By the practise of active adaptations in a life that is diverse and constantly changing, they develop the abilities and readinesses necessary for a lifelong voyage of discovery, exploration, and positive adjustment.

To the degree that the junior high school can so convincingly transfigure the school processes that abundant living and integrated personality through some form of creative expression may be understood and appreciated by senior high-school teachers and by community leaders, it will make its positive contribution to our changing secondary schools.

ARTICULATION BETWEEN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

BARNETT W. TAYLOR, PRINCIPAL, PATRICK HENRY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Instead of presenting a theoretical discussion of the subject assigned, I propose to describe what we are doing in Cleveland to solve the articulation problems that arise at the transition from the elementary to the junior high school.

An attempt has been made to familiarize sixth-grade pupils with the junior high school while they are still in the elementary school as follows:

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[1] Emerson's Works, III. 92, 93. National Library Edition.

1. Parents' organizations of the elementary schools make use of our auditorium when they give a program for parents. This provides the parents, as well as the prospective pupils, an opportunity to become acquainted with the new building.

2. The seven B's prepare a program to which all six A pupils in the district are invited. This program benefits the seven B's as much as it does the six A pupils.

3. As a part of the English assignment the pupils in this group derive considerable pleasure from writing personal letters to friends who are in the sixth grade.

4. Two years ago four junior high schools pooled their interests and prepared sixteen hundred feet of film which portrayed the many activities in these schools, including all subjects from mathematics to eurythmic dancing. This picture is shown as part of a program for the six A's.

5. The band and orchestra give concerts in the elementary schools which serve both as entertainment and as a guidance factor.

There is a continuity of direction and supervision of the boys and girls from the time they enter our school until they leave. These pupils are under the immediate direction of a home-room teacher who teaches the group in his special subject and who progresses with his pupils from seven B through nine A. He is responsible for:

1. Making class schedules
2. Keeping a record with regard to attendance and punctuality
3. Educational guidance
4. Providing vocational information
5. Health guidance
6. Making home visits
7. Keeping the parents informed as to the progress of the child.

The clerical responsibilities are the least important aspects of the home-room teacher's work. It is his duty as counselor to bring his group to an harmonious understanding of the ideals of the school. The ideal home-room teacher is one to whom the pupil naturally resorts when in trouble. He becomes particularly aware of the problems of the individual child and does for the pupil much of what the grade teacher did in the elementary school, and who assumes, in addition, the peculiar function of counselor, friend, and final arbiter.

A teacher is assigned to each grade as adviser. It is his duty to interview pupils and class teachers, to discover the cause of failure, to encourage the weak, and to inspire all to greater diligence.

Articulation is aided when:

1. The sixth grade teachers come to the junior high school to meet with the seventh grade teachers where questions bearing upon articulation are freely discussed. The friendships developed at these meetings are well worth while as an agency for articulation. Frequently the assistant superintendent in charge of junior high schools acts as chairman.

2. Each junior high-school principal holds a conference with the elementary principals in his district at various times during the school year. These meetings are regarded as positive and effective forces in securing articulation. It has been planned in our district to hold one meeting each semester, the program to be given with the coöperation of all principals concerned, with specific assignments to individual members.

The courses of study in the elementary and junior high school are articulated in an especially fine way; there is no break as the junior high courses were built upon the elementary foundation. The committees who constructed these courses made an analysis of the lower courses before proceeding with the higher. Overlapping or unnecessary duplication of work that has been done in the sixth grade is avoided, as every teacher and department head may know what has gone before and what is to follow. The way is paved for the direct transfer from the lower to the higher school by the counselor who makes occasional visits to the elementary schools where he talks to the pupils about the activities and ideals of the junior high school. At the same time he secures information concerning individual boys and girls. A short time before the end of the semester a final visit is made at which time he holds conferences with the boys and girls concerning the transfer to the new school and gives information as to:

1. Home-room assignment
2. Procedure to be followed the first day in the new school
3. Location of bookstores, books to be purchased, etc.

The counselor takes records of achievement back to the elementary school from which the pupils came, to be analyzed by teachers and principal. It does not follow that all responsibility for accomplishment or lack of accomplishment belongs to the elementary school. Too many times the higher school tries to accept all credit for the success of its pupils while at the same time it attributes the lack of success to poor preparation.

With home-room teachers, grade advisers, and the school counselor advising and directing the pupils, I think you will agree that pupils in Cleveland junior high schools are not thrown entirely on their own responsibility.

The elementary school aids in placing pupils in proper groups on entering the junior high school, by transmitting records to the junior high school which contain:

1. Probable learning rate
2. Scholastic accomplishment
3. Teachers' estimate of ability
4. Information concerning health
5. Notations of special interest and special abilities
6. Description of character traits
7. Facts concerning home conditions.

This information aids the teacher in becoming better acquainted with his pupils, thus making possible early individual adjustments and the best possible individual development of the pupils. The home-room teacher and the grade adviser make use of this record in dealing with individual cases, in arranging schedules to care for the particular needs of the pupil due to health, special interest, or special abilities.

ARTICULATION BETWEEN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

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I wish to present some specific plans for bridging the gap between junior and senior high schools and also call attention to some facts which make good plans difficult to put into operation. When a pupil moves from one building to another certain records and information concerning the pupil must necessarily be moved along with the pupil. To meet this need the following records should be transferred from the junior to the senior high school: (1) A personal record card which gives the senior high-school teachers useful information concerning the pupil such as, address, special talents, special characteristics and personality, furnished by the junior high-school home-room teachers, boys' adviser or girls' adviser (if any problem tendencies have been shown, they should also be recorded); (2) a health card, giving general facts concerning the health of the pupil and his physical education classification; (3) an educational guidance record which shows the choice of subjects selected for at least the first semester in the senior high school and in many cases for the fulltime in the senior high school; (4) a transcript of the junior high-school record which shows all subjects studied in the junior high school with the teachers' estimates of the achievement; (5) an assignment card, which gives the choice of subjects for the first semester and is used as a time saving device in program making.

A guidance program is necessary throughout the junior high school and is just as important in the senior high school. The essential factors of a guidance program are:

I. A required course in vocations in the last semester in junior high school. This course can best be taught by the girls' adviser and boys' adviser. Here each student makes a career book. This book is filled with all the information that the student can get concerning the vocation of his choice. These books furnish the basis for class discussion and are open for inspection by other students who might become interested in some other vocation than the one on which they have prepared their booklets. The preparation of this book calls the students' attention to the necessity of a choice for some vocation and for further education as a preparation for the vocation. In these classes the high-school program should be planned. The following things should be taken into consideration in the planning of the programs:

   A. The ability of the pupil as shown by the teachers' marks during the past year or two in the junior high school

B. Aptitudes and interests of pupils as indicated by their junior high school curriculum and extra-curriculum work

C. The life work chosen by the pupil and the possibility of the pupil attending college or some professional school after completing his senior high-school work.

II. The teacher of vocations should have an individual conference with each student to help him select the work he should take in the senior high school, and he should be encouraged to discuss his problems with his parents who should finally approve his choice of subjects before the record is sent on to the senior high school.

III. A few weeks before the close of the semester the boys' adviser and girls' adviser from the senior high school should go to the contributing junior high schools for a general conference with the 9A students and their junior high-school advisers, and while there they should meet each individual student to check his proposed program of work and answer questions concerning the senior high school. This visit will serve two main purposes: (1) The pupil feels better acquainted with a member of the senior high-school staff; and (2) the program of studies selected is discussed with a senior teacher which avoids any mistakes which might arise due to a lack of familiarity with the senior high-school program on the part of the junior high-school staff. This plan will prevent many program changes after the pupil has reached the senior high school. Changes made at the beginning in a new school are likely to cause the student to be discouraged.

IV. Sometime before the close of each semester all 9A students should meet in the senior high school to which they will go on completion of their ninth grade work. At the meeting the administrative staff of the senior high school should be introduced, the president of the student council should welcome the students, and they should be taken on a trip through the building in small groups with senior students acting as guides. At the close of this trip a party given by the student council is a help in making the students feel that they are really a part of the senior high school and will be missed if they do not come.

V. The exchange of talent, such as musicians, orators, debaters, etc., between the junior and senior high school is a very valuable articulation factor. Both groups are benefited and feel more closely connected.

VI. A personal data card, prepared by the advisers and teachers of the junior high school, and sent to the senior high school advisers is a very important means to help adjust students in their new work.

VII. The junior and senior high-school principals should meet regularly as often as twice each month. In addition there should be other meetings including girls' advisers, boys' advisers, and teachers of both schools where problems of the field of secondary education are discussed. Articulation problems will find a prominent place in such meetings. The better the members of these groups know one another and their interpretation of educational problems the more easily can students be moved from one school to another without stumbling over administrative technicalities.

ARTICULATION BETWEEN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND THE COLLEGE—ABSTRACT

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We would say that an executive of a business would be grossly inefficient if he were not thoroughly familiar with the business ethics and practises of the concerns that absorb his product. The full success of his business venture is based upon his intimate knowledge of the industrial and economic conditions that govern the marketing of his product. He places little reliance upon catalogs and hearsay evidence; he personally investigates, makes human contacts, and formulates his judgments thereon. Shall we not say: Let us principals of high schools go and do likewise! On the other hand, the college in its guidance program for freshmen is faced with a battery of peculiar problems. The problem of the adjustment of freshmen to college life should be the immediate concern of the college. The fledgling, shall we say, released from the careful supervision of the secondary school, finds a freedom in which he loses all sense of proportion and coordination and falls down. The number and diversity of the claims upon the interest and attention of the young student confuse him. He gives a disproportionate amount of time to athletics; he rambles down the pleasant paths of social dalliance; he permits the extra-curriculum activities, worthwhile as they are, to assume a dangerous disproportionate importance. Then, too, the impersonal relationships existing between students and faculty members in college in contrast with those same relationships in high school, he fails to comprehend. The complete independence that is thrust upon the freshman in absolute contrast to the careful guidance upon which he leaned possibly too much in the high school demoralizes him.

Colleges must recognize and accept their responsibilities and organize, accordingly, personnel work that will orientate the freshman to his social and scholastic environment. Sporadic or periodic efforts at orientation, such as freshmen registration days, pilgrimages over the plant of the college and freshmen weeks, all worthwhile attempts at conventional introductions, can scarcely take the place of permanent educational courses in orientation, such as "The World of Nature and of Man," offered at the University of Chicago.

Finally, and to me the most important of all, the high school, through its educational guidance program and through the agency of the regular routine class procedure, must lay emphasis on the development of habits and techniques of study, making for independent effort on the part of the students. After all, the inculcation of the habit of study which will result in good thinking, and which, in turn, will create a respect for sustained, eager effort, a desire for mental percentage, is, in my judgment, the most important contributing factor in the solution of the articulation problem. If the thinking powers of the student have been taxed to capacity; if the problems set for his solution have been interesting and diverse enough to intrigue his originality and develop in him a spirit of initiative in the organization of his materials, and independence in the performance of his intellectual tasks, there will be no floundering when he must face the perplexing problem of his first year in college, and when he must adjust himself to the new methods of procedure that inevitably follow.

ARTICULATION: SOME FUNDAMENTAL PURPOSES AND ITS IDEALS

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This program and the work of recent committees on articulation advertise a fundamental defect in American education. We are proud, and properly so, of the universal provision of elementary schools and of their marvelous achievements in imparting skills in the use of the tools of learning; we have established secondary schools in every district of the nation and enrolled a larger proportion of adolescents than any other people ever dreamed of doing; and we have seen our colleges crowded to overflowing. But with all this we recognize that in the United States we have congeries of schools rather than systems. Junior high schools are too remote from the elementary; senior high schools have too frequently ignored the programs of the lower grades; and the colleges are notoriously independent of the secondary institutions.

Separate units such as we have are, of course, illogical. Historically they came from conditions very different from those that are supposed to prevail in a democracy, and in their development they lost the authoritative control which gave and still gives in foreign countries a system. They may be explained in part by the American belief that organization is of supreme importance. In the eighteenth century there was dissatisfaction with the Latin grammar schools, and the academy was organized. But the organization was not sufficient, and it soon slipped away even from the ideals that Franklin so clearly proposed. In the early nineteenth century dissatisfaction brought the organization of the public high school, which from the beginning succeeded more because of its form than because of its contribution to life needs of any kind. Nearly a hundred years later there was further dissatisfaction and the junior high school was organized, but so many administrators were content with the organization that they made entirely inadequate efforts to insure that the new institution remedy the deficiencies that brought it into being. The academy and the junior high school alone of all our educational units came into being with clearly stated and practical programs. Their failure to accomplish the objectives for which they were organized is the outstanding tragedy in our history.

Organization is of course important, but it is not sufficient. A school is organized that it may be administered; it is administered that it may be instructed. Despite our devotion to organization and administration, in which we have developed high degrees of skill, we must on a moment's reflection realize that they are merely to facilitate education, that in themselves they have no importance and, in fact, no meaning. Instead of ancillary we have often in practise made them supreme.

Any effective organization must begin with the whole, all the parts articulating into an effective system. But inheriting separate units and from time to time inventing new ones, we have tended to develop each more or less as if it were independent, demanding that any others shall articulate with it. The famous Committee of Ten ruthlessly demanded two years of the time then devoted to elementary education, apparently never realizing that secondary education must be built on what has preceded and manifesting in their reports no concern with whether or not the elementary schools could achieve their objectives in the abbreviated period that was proposed. Fortunately, as these schools had no definite objectives and as their skills and the conditions under which they worked rapidly improved about this time, the concession could be made without serious loss. The program of this association today, laudable and excellent as it is, is deficient in that apart from representatives of the elementary schools and the colleges we are discussing articulation. The very term implies the adjustment of all parts so that the whole may work harmoniously and effectively.

The suggestions that have been made here and many of those in the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence are admirable. There is urgently needed a better understanding by teachers in each unit of what is being attempted and accomplished below and above, and this will be increased by conferences, exchanges of visits or of teachers, supervision, and the like. But all of such proposed means may still fail to get at the heart of the matter. What is primarily needed is a philosophy that not only gives a clear and directive conception of what education is but also sets up definite objectives that each of the school units must achieve in order that there may result an articulated system.

Philosophies of education are announced in catalogs of all universities and normal schools, but especially as they affect secondary and higher schools they are taken seriously by few students beyond examination time. Some of the philosophies are still concerned with mediaeval dialectics; some are so abstract as to have little meaning to the practical school man; some are lacking in comprehensiveness; and some neglect important factors of modern life or elements of common practises. It is not too much to charge that the most significant lack in modern education is a philosophy that is comprehensive, clear, sound, and directive of what education should attempt to contribute to the betterment of modern life. For this lack the public at large as well as educators must share the blame, for neither they nor we have been sufficiently conscious of the need to make insistent demands that would at least initiate a program leading to workable formulations.

No wonder that our educational units are inarticulated when we have agreed on no such philosophy as is clearly needed. No wonder that each unit imitates rather than invents when administrators fail to hold a philosophy that would give direction. No wonder that the units themselves lack definite statements of the objectives which each should contribute to a unified and effective whole. One can search in vain the literature of education for any satisfactory statement of what large objectives the elementary school, whether of six years or of eight, is expected to accomplish, and naturally its achievements are variable. Bonser's statement is the best that we have, and at least half of that has had no effect on practise. For the junior high school there is a statement which would be salutary if it were as much used to direct practise as it is widely quoted. On senior high school and collegiate objectives there is no agreement, and little concern that there shall be. And for specialized trade schools, whether for industry, commerce, or teaching, the stated objectives are conspicuously lacking in comprehensiveness. So long as these statements are even measurably true, we of necessity will have inarticulated congeries of schools and not articulated systems.

It might be ventured that we lack faith in education. In light of the vast appropriations, the numerous and excellent plants, the army of teachers, and the nation of pupils, this statement may sound strange and extreme. But if we had faith in education, we should expect it to do definite things for the good of society; we should clearly announce what those things are; and we should measure all success in terms of them. Perhaps we believe in schools rather than in education. We have provided them, and we have become a profession of expert administrators. Everywhere we know more of how to design buildings, how to use fans, window shades, and floor oil, how to make schedules, how to organize classes, how to keep records, and how to measure mechanical learnings than we know of how to educate. And, what is worse, we are more concerned about the former than about the latter.

That we may have faith in education we need to realize its importance, its necessity, for society as well as for the individual. There is only one sound justification for the provision of free education at public expense, and this is that it may make each individual better able and better disposed to contribute to the betterment of the supporting society. It is on such principles as this that articulated unity of schools can be built. When every school formulates a program that will aim primarily at making each pupil, whatever his native abilities, his interests, and his aptitudes, better in such ways that he is a more effective citizen, then the problems of articulation will be simplified, for all will be working at various maturity levels toward common objectives, and each will recognize the wisdom and the necessity of building on what the preceding unit has achieved.

When one examines the curriculums of most schools or the major part of the curriculums of all, especially of those on the secondary level, he must be convinced that education is not nor is it intended to be taken seriously. If it were, its program would obviously manifest its intention of affecting life and affecting it materially for better living—culturally, socially, or vocationally. Let us freely admit and even justifiably boast that there have been great improvements in this matter, that there is much in the curriculum of even the poorest modern school contributing directly and effectively to the betterment of life; but when we have done this we find that there is a residue so large and so manifestly useless to the pupils to whom it is administered as to prove the contention that as a people we do not realize the importance of education.

Perhaps we may be more sympathetic with this contention if for a moment we consider the program of another educational institution, the Protestant Sunday School. Ordinarily it is an amateur project: the superintendent is an amateur, the teachers are amateurs. The "lessons" are prepared by a remote committee with no knowledge of local and individual needs and consequently no provisions for them. There is little preparatory study by the pupils, and such as there is lacks direction and seriousness. The teaching by and large would not be tolerated in any secular school, and there is no supervision. Why are such practises permitted? For the simple reason that parents do not really expect any important results that manifest themselves in conduct and in character. If they did expect such results and if they were evident, for better or for worse, parents would insist on better conditions and they would provide for them with the same generous expenditures that they make for the purchase and care of their motor cars.

The public evidently has more expectation from secular than from religious education, for it makes more generous appropriation to it. But despite the usual complaints at high taxes it is far less than would be forthcoming if there were obviously manifest greater contributions to societal welfare. The only sure foundation for free public education is the formulation and popularization of a philosophy that directs all school activities to some definite and justifiable goods. When we have that, agreement on the special functions of existing or newly invented school units will inevitably follow. Then, and not till then, will our efforts toward articulation, however intelligently and industriously we work, be more than piddling and patching.

What is proposed will be difficult to get. We may as well recognize that in the beginning. The difficulty arises primarily from the fact that we have so far gone along without a commonly accepted clear and comprehensive philosophy and from our failure to face and consequently to agree on the principles that should control and direct our efforts. It is very comfortable to continue a traditional program, improving it in details here and there, without really meeting the challenges that a changed and changing civilization brings, and so far it has satisfied the great majority of the public, or at least has not sufficiently offended them to cause any material reduction of support. But you leaders of secondary education have more knowledge than the public and a larger vision. You know the vagueness of the stated aims, the indefiniteness of effort, and the smallness of contribution to the really vital challenges of life. You know that secondary schools, especially the great majority that are small in size and least varied in offerings, justify their efforts with only a fraction of the adolescent population. And as leaders you must initiate and carry through reforms from within before attacks from without weaken support or force changes that may not in a large sense be wise or desirable.

Any really important reform in secondary education is, of course, dangerous, for it will affect the opinions, the prejudices, and the actions of citizens. It is not dangerous to change the methods of teaching a foreign language, to add to or to subtract from the course of study in geometry, to emphasize physics rather than chemistry, or to substitute mediaeval for ancient history, for the effects of any or all of such changes are remote and uncertain. The instructor in mathematics is never attacked because of what he teaches; the instructor in sociology, on the other hand, is in constant danger. So is any teacher who attempts to affect the opinions, the prejudices, and the actions of youth in matters that the public considers important. While admitting cultural values, in the too infrequent instances when they are achieved, we know that those are the greatest and most immediate values in education which affect directly and indirectly the ways people act in society, the ways that determine happy and successful living. All articulation is ultimately concerned with this important and essential matter.

For many and complex reasons there has developed in the United States a fetish of secondary education, a widespread and powerful belief in it regardless of what it is. This popular fetish has multiplied schools, crowded them with youth, and made possible the development of our profession. If the leaders in the profession betray the faith of the people, the hopes of the parents, and the ambitions of the youth, they will have done worse than waste money and time; they will have weakened the whole structure of supporting society; they will have retarded rather than have materially advanced civilization. It is with a realization of responsibility not merely for doing the job well under present conditions but also of preparing a program that leads to more important and vital results that it is necessary to introduce a critical note into our deliberations. We want to substitute a philosophy for a fetish.

This we cannot do merely by perfecting technics of organization, of administration, of methods in teaching, or of measurement of academic learning and retension. This we cannot do merely by assembling facts about the schools and the pupils. It is important that we have facts, but we have already accumulated far more than we have used. We already know for many groups the number of schools, the organization, the cost per pupil hour in the several subjects, the number of teachers, their sex, preparation, and experience, the number of pupils distributed by sex, age, advancement, and intelligence quotients, their participation in extracurriculum activities, and so on. But what we need is a philosophy that makes all these data meaningful. We already have scientific evidence of selection, general and special abilities, the effects of class size, the frequency of this or that. But lacking a philosophy that gives significance to the whole activity of education, we have been slow to use what has been discovered.

It is the curriculum that first will be affected by philosophy. During the past few years a wave of curriculum reform has gone across the country. The laity as well as the profession has been convinced of its necessity. Committees have been appointed and appropriations, generous in education but niggardly and totally insufficient when measured by the need, have been made. The results have been pitifully small and tragically inadequate. Why? Partly because the challenge is too great to be met by any local group, usually working in the interstices of regular duties, but chiefly because there is no clear and generally accepted philosophy of education and no consequent definition of the special functions of the several administrative units. So long as we lack these the efforts at curriculum reform will be sporadic and the results of relatively small importance. So long as we make no serious and major effort to formulate the philosophy and to define the functions, you will be lacking in the leadership which your elected positions imply and which the public confidently expects from you.

I cannot conclude without an expression of appreciation for the fine professional spirit of this body, for the loyalty and intelligent industry with which you conduct your schools, and for the patient and skilled research that is going on both in laboratories and in the field. It is these things which warrant the faith that the larger and fundamental need will be supplied when it is understood, when its importance, its essentiality is appreciated. The task is great. It cannot be satisfactorily performed by individuals hampered by other duties,—if, indeed, it can be performed at all by individuals working alone. It cannot be satisfactorily performed by committees meeting at odd moments during conventions, the members hurried and harassed by other obligations. It will need appropriations such as industry alone, which realizes the importance of dividends, now makes, and it will need long continued effort by the most competent in our profession assisted by experts from all related fields. But I have faith that the challenge will be accepted soon, for it must be accepted soon to insure the continued support of the public and the real promotion of societal good, which is possible only by means of education.

Pending results, we shall all carry on, doing the job as best we can, making such improvements as we can invent, imitate, or achieve by the application of scientifically found facts or experimentally discovered methods. Articulation between the several administrative units will be improved by the excellent suggestions that have been made, now that attention is focused on the neglected need. But fundamental to articulation as to every other important element in education is an agreement on what it is all about, what ends we are seeking for society by means of the schools.

INTEGRATION IN HIGH-SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE CURRICULUMS—ABSTRACT

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What conditions must be set up before we can work out an integrated and socially effective program of education in our secondary schools?

1. It would seem entirely obvious that the entire period of secondary education should be treated as a unit, and that the secondary school should be most closely articulated with the elementary school. This would mean the inclusion of the junior college grades as a permanent feature of the American program of secondary education. Integration will be next to impossible as long as secondary education is administered in part by the public schools and in part by the colleges and universities.

2. Each administrative unit should embrace as many grades as possible. The best unit in our system of schools is probably the six grade elementary school, which with its kindergarten embraces seven years, and sometimes eight. The three year junior and senior high schools are in the judgment of many, entirely too short, and the two year junior college is even more open to the same criticism. Such short units break education into too many segments and limit the view and contacts of the teacher. The renewed interest in experimentation with the six year secondary school grows out of the realization of this weakness in the shorter units. On the other hand, there is a wide difference in the social, intellectual and physical maturity of twelve year olds and eighteen year olds.

One of the most interesting and important experiments that has appeared is that being conducted in Pasadena, where the secondary schools have been reorganized into two units of four years each; one embracing the 7th, 8th, 9th and 10th grades, and the other the 11th and 12th and the two junior college grades. Under this arrangement, there are only two transitions to be made between administrative units.

3. Every barrier that prevents the adaptation of a program of education to the needs of the individual should be torn away. The college and university must eventually face the fact that they are utterly without justification in setting up for entrance subjectmatter and other requirements that can, in themselves, have no bearing on the ability of a student to do work on the college level, or that, by buttressing the prevailing system of credits and subjects, make it difficult for the secondary school to modify its practises on purely educational considerations. Within, the secondary school teachers and administrators must rid themselves of every fetish that makes against integration. Only one question should be asked in administering the educational

program for an individual, and that is: What are his needs? We must get rid of the absurd practise of requiring a boy or girl to study a subject merely to meet some arbitrary requirement.

4. The fourth condition pertains to the problem of the curriculum. If all arbitrary requirements were swept away we would be left free to take up a thoroughgoing reconstruction of the secondary school curriculum. This will involve a reexamination and reevaluation of the subjectmatter which is now included, and a constant and most thoroughgoing study of modern life in order to determine what new subjectmatter and activities should be included. This process involves not merely elimination and addition. If the curriculum of the school is not attuned to the beat of modern life all discussion of the problems of articulation and integration are beside the point.

5. From the standpoint of method, the resynthesis of subjectmatter for purposes of teaching assumes a role of major importance. As stated earlier, subjects will undoubtedly hold a place in the secondary curriculum of the future. But the subjects of the future may well be very different from those of today. The teaching of a systematic body of knowledge as a subject will be maintained only where such a procedure has demonstrated itself to be the most effective. We shall unhesitatingly follow the psychological rather than the logical method of teaching, and the logical order will be adopted only when it meets the requirements of a sound pedagogy.

6. Guidance must assume an ever-increasing importance in the new secondary school. After all, the elaborate machinery of units and credits, majors and minors, college entrance requirements, and the like are instruments of guidance. We have heard much discussion of guidance in recent years, but have really only begun a consideration of the subject. The school which I am advocating must keep growth records for each individual, not for the purpose of recording what examinations he has taken, what credits he has received, but for the purpose of depicting his development intellectually, socially, physically, his growth in interests, attitudes, appreciations. Obviously such a record should be used only by the scientifically trained teacher, capable of maintaining an objective but at the same time a most human attitude toward the learner. The utmost of skill will be required in assisting the student and the home in making wise decisions as he continues through the schools. If such records were kept they would form the basis not only for the most intelligent possible report to the college or the university but for the purposes of vocational and social counsel.

7. Finally, the most important condition of educational reconstruction in the secondary school—the condition that involves all the others—is that the policy for the secondary school should be made by students of secondary education. As things stand now the policies of the high school are made very largely by the colleges and universities. Tradition plays an important part. The teachers and executives in the high schools have been too little alert to their larger responsibilities. They have not come forward with constructive proposals for reform. Too many professors of education are likewise con-

ventionally minded, concerned only with refining the practises of the existing school rather than in fundamental reconstruction. But making all allowances for the forces of tradition and convention and the inertia of the workers in the field the fact remains that policies in secondary education are still too largely made by college professors and administrative officers who are not students of the problem of secondary education. They may be great economists or physicists, or linguists or astronomers, or executives, but such accomplishments do not qualify them to set up policies in a most important educational and social field in which they are scarcely students at all.

TERMINAL COURSES IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND JUNIOR COLLEGES—ABSTRACT

J. J. OPPENHEIMER, STEPHENS JUNIOR COLLEGE, COLUMBIA, MO.

I wish to list six significant trends that bear upon the terminal function of secondary education:

1. The growth of the democratic conception of education
2. The demand of great masses of people for more schooling
3. The requirements for a higher grade personnel in industry
4. Further extension of the comfort standard of living to greater numbers
5. Increase of leisure time
6. A need for rational basis of conduct.

NEEDS FOR TERMINAL COURSES

The need for terminal courses can be indicated by listing the number of conditions existing in our presentday society:

1. The tremendous growth of cities which means taking up of some type of non-agricultural work
2. The tremendous growth of commercial and industrial organizations
3. The entrance of women into industry in increasing numbers
4. The great numbers of secondary students do not go on to college
5. The great mortality in the freshman and sophomore years of our standard colleges and universities
6. The increasing demands for better qualified personnel in business and in industry is due to application of science to technic and managerial processes
7. The inadequacy of trade education for semi-professional occupations
8. The possible filling up of the traditional professions.

An example of building terminal curriculums on local needs—The great need in construction of terminal curriculums in the junior college is to base them upon careful analyses of local or regional economic requirements. The common error that a junior college makes is that of thinking that it has set up a terminal curriculum when it has combined a number of formal academic courses especially those of a pre-professional requirement type. Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute of Rochester, New York, furnishes a noteworthy example of building curriculums upon the present vocational requirements of the community. This institution has set up separate curriculums in four major fields: industrial arts, food administration, applied arts, and retail distribution. The steps taken in determining the needs are:

1. A survey of the jobs now held by all graduates of the institute and of the paths by which these graduates have come to these present positions

2. A search of current literature to see whether or not additional jobs were mentioned which were not found in the listing of jobs held by graduates

3. A survey of plants and commercial establishments in the Rochester and Western New York area by the faculty members to find out the number of jobs and the desirability of each of these jobs for graduates of Mechanics Institute

4. The opinion of experts regarding the desirability of training individuals within these specified fields. In many cases these experts are nationally known, while in other cases they are local management authorities.

In making the tentative decision regarding the basic terminal job the following factors are kept in mind:

1. Are there enough of these jobs to supply the majority of graduates?

2. Will it be possible for the graduates to obtain these jobs with a four- to eight-year period after graduation?

3. Are these jobs sufficiently well paid to be attractive to graduates?

4. Are these jobs low enough to be within the abilities of the majority of graduates?

The advantage of the four year junior college in its terminal aspects or functions—The need for terminal courses in the junior-college level is based upon two significant reasons, the demands of business and industry and the democratic urge for more education. I believe that the presentday two-year junior college if well articulated with the senior high school can contribute to the solution of the two above mentioned needs, but I am more firmly convinced that the four year junior college is a better solution for these problems.

1. The four year junior college—the union of the last two years of the senior high school and the first two years of college—affords a longer period to spread out vocational training and provides greater opportunity to introduce cultural subjects alongside of technical courses.

2. It gives greater opportunity to professionalize—which is in essence to liberalize or to socialize—technical skills and processes.

3. It provides for ample opportunities for vocational guidance at the age when skills, judgments, and needs are more apparent. Surely a boy or girl in the junior year of high school needs vocational and educational guidance as much as they do in the eighth or ninth grades.

4. The later adolescent period offers a far better opportunity for vocational education on a cooperative plan than does the ordinary senior high-school period.

5. It enables the grouping of youth of greater intellectual maturity than does the senior high school, and thereby enables the school to challenge the ability of pupils.

6. Undoubtedly, it offers greater opportunity for closer articulation, economy of time, economy in administration and in plant equipment.

7. It provides for closer integration between trade education—which is generally accepted as the legitimate field for the senior high school—and semi-professional education.

THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE FOUR-YEAR JUNIOR COLLEGE—ABSTRACT

JOHN A. SEXSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PASADENA, CALIF.

The organization of a system on the 6–4–4 basis involves more than a housing problem. Some very significant educational possibilities are attainable through this form of organization. The following is a list of some of the important educational implications involved in the 6–4–4 plan.

1. It carries with it a recognition of the fact that the junior college years—grades thirteen and fourteen—are a part of a wellrounded system of secondary education and should be articulated with the public school system in the most efficient manner. This is contrary to the popular conception of the matter. The difficulty with a two-year junior college up to the present time has been that the advocates and administrators have regarded it not as an educational entity in itself, with character and individuality of its own, but rather as a fractional part of some other institution of larger length, to be specific, a fractional part of the college of liberal arts. The junior college, however, cannot justify itself on such grounds. It cannot continue to live on borrowed light. If the junior college makes and maintains for itself a place in the educational system of the country, it will be because it has intrinsic value of its own and because it, as an institution *per se,* has a real contribution to make to the development of young America. The solution of the problem must inevitably be that if the junior college is to enjoy any degree of permanency, it must develop as a unique institution with character, individuality and intrinsic merit of its own, and this can best be accomplished by the joining of the freshman and sophomore college years with the upper years of the secondary school as the topmost unit of the public secondary school system.

2. If the four-year junior college is to develop as a distinct institution, the thirteenth and fourteenth years must not copy the life and practises of the standard college and university. One difficulty of the junior college up to this time has been that it has endeavored to ape the standard college and university. If this is to be the policy of the junior college, it has a slight contribution indeed to make to the development of the public school system. United, however, with the eleventh and twelfth grades, the four years combined as one institution can develop a spirit and unity with a distinct contribution which will be neither high school nor university but the topmost unit of a well-balanced system of public education, with standards adaptable to students of these years and offering the conditions for the maximum growth and development of the upper adolescent student unhampered and unbiased either by high school or the usual baccalaureate college traditions.

3. The 6–4–4 plan carries with it the possibilities of a continuous and flexible curriculum. The hard and fast boundary line between the twelfth and thirteenth years must disappear. There must develop such flexibility of curriculum as will make possible a continuously developing educational experience for the student from the eleventh through the fourteenth years without duplication or overlapping of subjectmatter. This would mean that students in the eleventh and twelfth grades and those of the thirteenth and fourteenth grades must be permitted to take work, each in the other's division up to a reasonable percentage of the student load.

4. Moreover, the 6–4–4 plan implies that the thirteenth or fourteenth year student must be permitted to to take a reasonable percent of his work from the twelfth grade. This would make it unnecessary to duplicate beginning courses of the twelfth grade with similar beginning courses in the thirteenth or fourteenth. In no other way will it be possible to organize a unified institution covering grades eleven to fourteen inclusive without the duplication of subjectmatter.

5. For the same reason, twelfth-grade students who have met the subjectmatter requirements for the completion of that grade must be permitted to take thirteenth year work for credit, up to a reasonable percent of the student load.

6. Twelfth grade graduation must ultimately disappear. Under the 6–4–4 plan, the twelfth grade cannot be recognized as a legitimate stopping place. In other words, to use the language of Woodrow Wilson, while president of Princeton, "Nobody ever heard of graduating a sophomore."

7. If education is to be democratized through the fourteenth year, an increasing number of terminal courses must become available to the students. With the larger numbers who are attending the junior college, an increasing percent will not find it possible to go on through the university. The needs of such students cannot be met by the college preparatory curriculum. It must become necessary through an adequate guidance program to study the needs of the individual and, while giving him a well-rounded general education, at the same time to prepare him for a life of usefulness on graduation from the junior college.

8. There should be a better defined articulation of the four-year junior college with the upper division of the standard college or university. This articulation should make it possible for all graduates of the junior college who have met the subjectmatter prerequisites for continuation in the university, to be admitted to the junior year of the standard college or the professional school of the university. In other words, the only prerequisites that should be required for admission into the upper division of the standard college or university should be such as are imposed by the subject in which the student desires to specialize. It is an unjust and arbitrary use of power for any group of university administrators to set up conditions which keep out of the university students who have the subjectmatter prerequisites for

the advanced studies which they expect to pursue at the university and who have demonstrated their ability as college students.

TEACHER LOAD IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE—ABSTRACT

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School expenditures have been increasing at a rapid rate along with other expenses. The school administrator must be in a position to justify his annual budget. As instructional costs represent the greatest item of the budget, any change in class size, or number of classes per teacher would have a very direct effect upon the financial situation.

In the light of all available evidence class size is a minor factor in determining educational achievement. "Caution in accepting innovations is certainly commendable, but the burden of proof is rapidly being shifted from defenders of large classes to defenders of small classes. The public is faced with the problem of financing schools which must provide for an unprecedentedly large pupil population. Experiments have shown that in some small classes pupils apparently become too dependent on teacher while in large classes independence is more likely to be cultivated."[1] If students in large classes achieve results equal to the achievements of those in small units, there can be no justification for the retention of the more expensive program.

We see from the data reported by 87 public junior colleges that we have a median junior college offering the following:

Department	Number of Classes per Teacher	Number of Preparations per Teacher	Number of Semester Hours per Teacher	Recommended by Administrator	
				Semester Hours per Teacher	Maximum Number of Pupils per Class
Art	6	5	18	18	30
Commercial	5	5	15	15	35
English	5	3	15	15	30
Foreign Language	4	3	18	18	30
Home Economics	0	0	0	15	30
Mathematics	5	3	16	15	30
Mechanic Arts	0	0	0	18	30
Music	0	0	0	18	50
Physical Education	5	1	18	18	50
Science (Biological)	3	2	15	15	30
Science (Physics-Chem.)	4	3	15	15	30
Social Studies	5	3	15	15	35

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[1] *School Review;* Editorial Comment, Vol. XXXVI, p. 734, December, 1929.

Pressure is always brought to bear to have small classes and a light load such as ten or twelve hours. These data have simply told you present practise. No attempt has been made to justify the findings. We need many experimental studies similar to those of the University of Minnesota.

The speaker thinks it is safe to say that it is impossible to make a perfectly balanced program. "Not all hours of teaching represent equal effort, nor do all subjects require the same amount of outside preparation. English teachers protest that they have a peculiarly heavy burden in theme reading, algebra teachers make similar claims regarding the correction of exercises, physics teachers call attention to the preparation of apparatus, botany teachers remind us of extended field trips, history teachers complain of note books. Teachers having different work to teach for every hour complain of heavy demands in lesson preparation, and those teaching several parallel sections of the same subject are burdened by the monotony of their work." [1] So the junior-college administrator will have to remember the words of the old song: "You can't be a friend to everybody, for you'll have lots of trouble if you try." He will have to make out his teaching program in the light of instructional cost, plus current practise, plus local conditions, plus a good back bone.

CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION IN JUNIOR COLLEGES—ABSTRACT

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On the positive side we may say for the junior colleges of California that certain of them are mapping out a broad and rich program not restricted to the narrow range of work often characteristic of the program in the first two years of four-year colleges and universities. Second, there has been a beginning toward setting up differentiated opportunities for students of differing competence. While one may not hold a brief for the particular types of differentiation described, some sort of adjustment for students of widely differing abilities or of differing lengths of stay in educational institutions is imperative. The "C" and "D" divisions, imposed from without, provide at least a starting point.

On the negative side we may deplore chiefly the prevalent (but not quite universal) lack of differentiation in the liberal or cultural elements of the training program. Such differentiation as is provided is prevalently in the practical or industrial arts, as if the interests and training of the less competent students and others who will not remain in school through the full college period should be solely or largely of an occupational character. Certainly there is no tenable dichotomy of junior-college students that would train a portion of them by means of strictly academic programs and the remainder by practical-arts programs to the exclusion of liberalizing academic elements. Junior colleges have an important responsibility here, one that will require extended experimental development of cultural courses for students who will not or should not continue beyond the junior-college level.

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[1] Foster, Herbert H. *High School Administration.* Century Co. 1928, p. 99.

Even the relatively large proportion of the offering in the field designated as "practical and industrial arts" cannot be accepted as a guarantee that adequate facilities for vocational training on the semi-professional level are at hand in these junior colleges. In large part this offering has been taken over from the high-school courses below, many of which are not strictly vocational and not well adapted to the junior-college level. The basic studies that will identify the semi-professions are still to be made, and following their identification must come the investigations upon which the courses and curriculums in preparation for them must be based.

Assuming that liberalizing and occupational programs can be mapped out for this group of students, there is still the problem of inducing them to avail themselves of these offerings. The traditions are opposed to aspiring to less than the complete college or full professional curriculum extending four or more years above the level of high-school graduation. This is where the function of guidance in the junior college, referred to above in listing the services of the junior college, must come into play.

If time were available it would be interesting to speculate over the type of curriculum organization that should be instituted following the integration of junior-college years with the last year or two of the senior high school. In the early stages of the process of integration the problem would be more complex than that in either of the two units when separately administered. Offhand, however, it does not appear that, after thorough integration has been effected, the organization should differ widely from the best practises in senior high schools, although, because of the length of the new school unit, it would be somewhat more complicated.

Department of Social Studies

THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES was formerly the National Council for the Social Studies and was created as a Department of the National Education Association by the Board of Directors at the Indianapolis meeting of the Association in 1925.

The officers of the Department of Social Studies for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Edgar Dawson, Professor of Political Science and History, Hunter College, New York, N. Y.; *First Vicepresident*, R. M. Tryon, Professor of Teaching of History, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; *Second Vicepresident*, D. S. Morgan, Head of Social Studies Department, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Ind.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Bessie L. Pierce, Associate Professor of History, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; *Board of Directors*, J. M. Gambrill, Professor of History, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.; A. C. Krey, Professor, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1926:652-663 1927:679-695 1928:651-654 1929:633-642

EDUCATION THEORY VERSUS THE INTEGRITY OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES—ABSTRACT

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BOWLING GREEN, OHIO

THE BASIC question at issue in the social studies curriculum resolves itself in the last analysis to this: Shall the courses consist of special disciplines dictated by the needs of modern democratic society, or shall they consist of well-integrated studies of principles dictated by the demands of the logic necessary for elementary, reflective thought with reference to these needs? The latter can be as truly consonant with modern educational theories as the former. On the psychological side, it seems far more so.

Modern educational theories, moreover, have affected the methods of teaching the social studies quite as much as they have the curriculum. The old memorization methods have passed and in their places have come the project, the problem, supervised study, socialized recitation, field visits, syllabi, pictures, motion pictures, reference reading, workbooks, map portfolios, diagrams, charts, encyclopedias, notebooks, notecards, current-events magazines, lesson plans, and scores of others. In some cases, the work is put to the practical test; school classes run city governments for a day; the control of the school is often placed in a student council; and student clubs are formed to pursue certain socialized objectives. Wholehearted, purposeful activity in lifelike situations has replaced the traditional recitation.

The fundamental element of newness in all these methods and devices resides in the extent to which they stimulate and employ independent pupil activity directed toward worthy objectives. Wherever this element is found in its bona-fide form, it deserves nothing but commendation. The aim or the objective in every case is the matter of supreme importance. One of the peculiar merits of the project, problem, and unit methods is that they keep the purpose in the forefront of attention. It is likewise one of their peculiar difficulties in practise, also. Every type of method that emphasizes pupil participation meets with this same difficulty. As a consequence, the tendency is to mechanize methods so that pupils cannot go wrong. Projects, problems, units, notebooks, work-books, map exercises, special reports, readings, and even current events have become "canned," to use a slang phrase. They are all worked out in texts, syllabi, or special publications. Even initiative and originality have become "canned," since we often find in the plans the exact place where pupils are to make suggestions. Pupils go through the exercises, color their maps, construct their graphs, write up their notes, copy the outline of their "units," and every semblance of full participation is present. That many good teachers do not get caught in the machinery, there can be no question; but that the tendency is general, there can likewise be no question.

All of this has a vital bearing upon the question of the integrity of the social studies. The newer courses of study that employ large units of history in the pursuit of an objective, or use complex and often vague current social and political problems for lesson units, magnify the dangers of pointless pupil participation, on the one hand, or the necessity of mechanizing procedure, on the other. A principles course forces the use of smaller or more definite units of thought. The teacher can grant freedom in the radiation of the principle out into life and still keep a tether on the pupil. Freedom for originality is restrained, to be sure; but it is not choked, on the one hand, or given license, on the other.

With reference to the modern scientific measurement movement in education in its relation to the social studies, only a word need be said here. The objectives of the social studies have been widened tremendously under the influences of the social conception of education. Right along with this widening of objectives has come the standard test movement, which has narrowed down the criteria for the measurement of achievement to the most insignificant of matters. Dates, names, words, terms, choosing of alternative phrases and sentences, completion of sentences, and the like have been worked into scales for the measurement of class work. School systems have used them for promotion purposes, and states have employed them as a basis for granting honors and privileges. They may serve certain narrow purposes; but, on the whole, they are menaces to the social studies, since they belie the very fundamental aims of these studies.

The teacher of the social studies is in a very difficult position today. When he reads the founders of modern educational theory seriously, he meets with very little that is not a wholesome and inspiring challenge. When he reads the best of the scholarship in his special studies, he has a deepened faith in its great worth. When he turns to his classroom to meet the boys and girls whom he would like to see become effective, creative, and happy citizens, then he finds a mechanism of short courses, truncated units of thought, notebooks, workbooks, tests, grade cards, and a vast set of developing professional folkways and ritual that seem to stand between him and his goal. If he is somewhat mature and independent, he may remember the charming picture of old Socrates of Athens and resolve to hasten through verbiage and form and dwell with his pupils among eternal verities as long as he is permitted to do so.

THE DIRECT VERSUS THE INDIRECT APPROACH TO SOCIAL OBJECTIVES: HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

W. L. CONNER, CHIEF, BUREAU OF RESEARCH, BOARD OF EDUCATION, CLEVELAND, OHIO

There are two groups opposing each other with respect to the future of the social studies in the secondary school. One group believes that in the long run the greatest service to the individual and to society is to be accomplished by carrying the academic methods, materials, and organization of the higher institution into the secondary and lower schools. They probably believe that, insofar as social security and social change can be brought about, and insofar as they should be brought about through the agency of the school, they should be a byproduct of systematic instruction in the specialized disciplines of the separate social studies.

The other group seems to believe that we should decide as best as we can as to what social values we now possess need to be presented, and as to what social deficiencies we need to make up, and that we should select from the field of the social studies for use in the secondary schools those materials which tend to bear directly upon the preservation of the first set of values and the creation or spread of the second. They do not believe in disorganization. They believe in reorganization around pressing social needs.

The academic teacher of history, for example, might say that the systematic study of chronological history should make us tolerant and considerate of others, and give us foresight because we have cultivated hindsight. The advocate of the new social studies replies, "Yes, that is all very well; but if we are keen to have people tolerant in their social relationships why not have them study systematically the social effects of tolerance and intolerance in the fields where they operate most vigorously and try, by this direct study, to arrive at the tolerant social attitudes and behavior commonly believed to be of value to the individual and the state of today and tomorrow.

The social problem created by religious intolerance is an example of one of several which have been settled legally and intellectually long ago, yet must be settled anew in the minds and hearts of each generation if they are not to aggravate the happiness of that generation. Temperate men in education and the social studies can probably agree on more social needs which might be met by instruction in the social studies than the time available, or likely soon to be available, would permit the schools to undertake to meet. Needs apparent to some and denied by others might be neglected until such a time as agreement among reasonable men is possible.

The educationists might even say that the prejudice and ill feeling likely to be present in almost any school group is ample to furnish the best starting point for the systematic study of the whole program of religious toleration and intolerance. There is considerable evidence that this is true. Complete stenographic reports of the progress of junior high-school classes making a beginning at the study of toleration, tests of the results in knowledge and skill, and careful observation of the results in terms of changes in social behavior would bear out the contention of the ultra-moderns for their dependence upon group and individual interest in current problems to furnish drives for study.

The battle is on! The highly specialized teacher of subjectmatter is likely to take sides in increasing numbers with the first group. Educational philosophers and practical educators in the field, together with social-minded publicists of pulpit and press are likely to take the other view. As the differences become more clearly apparent a frank compromise will be possible. In such a compromise enough emphasis may be placed upon the determination of social needs and their use as criteria in the selection of subjectmatter to be taught in the schools that the educationalist may feel that his work is not in vain. In such a compromise enough use may be made of the findings of research in the special fields which make up the social studies that the academic professor may be satisfied that he is finding his place in the sun.

Society and the state probably need the work of both the subjectmatter specialist and the educationist. The careful scientific study of geography, government, history, economics, and sociology must be cultivated in order to supply the necessary facts and principles for courses in the social studies. Careful reorganization of such of the facts of these subjects as can be brought to bear directly upon such social problems the probable solutions to which are clearly recognized must be cultivated in order that public education supported by the state shall be conducted in the service of the individual and the state. What is probably needed even more just now are a few men from each group who will sit down together and try to work out a program in social studies which will embrace in combination more of the viewpoint of the scholar and more of the viewpoint of the educational philosopher and practical school administrator than have ever before been put together in one course.

Many of us are hopeful that the present Commission of the American Historical Association on Direction of the Investigation of the Social Studies is made up in such a way as to bring about temporarily satisfying compromises on the issues which are not solved by the analytical studies their cooperating groups are making.

A STUDY OF SOCIAL JUDGMENTS—ABSTRACT

D. S. MORGAN, HEAD OF DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES, ARSENAL TECHNICAL SCHOOLS, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

In the last analysis, instruction which has for its purpose the development of an intelligent citizenship must be directed toward improving soundness of judgment upon social questions. With the air full of twisted phrases the essential duty which the citizen has to perform is to detect the false from the true. To develop a sound citizenship means to develop a body of citizens each one of whom can pass a critical judgment upon men and issues and principles, and when the time comes to do so give an unequivocal yes or no to whatever issue presents itself.

It is quite generally recognized that the difference between failure and success in business is very largely the difference between good and bad judgment. This may hold equally true for government which is directed and controlled by the people. It is not sufficient that we merely give our pupils a body of facts about social life. They must be given problems in which they can use these facts in arriving at judgments. If we believe that we are in the classroom to make some desirable changes in the mode of thinking of our pupils it is necessary for us to take stock of the kind of judgments they are making and the basis upon which they are made. All of this demands methods of procedure in teaching which call for continuous and regular practise in the exercise of judgment. It also demands development of measures of good judgment upon social issues in order that we may know whether our teaching is achieving a worthwhile purpose.

RACIAL ELEMENTS IN AMERICAN HISTORY TEXTBOOKS —ABSTRACT

THYRA CARTER, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, IOWA CITY, IOWA

Since the World War various racial and other partisan groups have held that American histories are distorted by a pro-British bias and that they have not given appropriate attention to the contributions of other groups that have gone to make up the American nation. It has, therefore, been the purpose of a study made by the writer to discover to what extent nationalities other than the English have been treated in the histories commonly used in our schools and how the treatment of these people compared with that of the English.

Ten senior high-school textbooks, taken from the list compiled through the cooperation of publishers, were examined to determine the amount of space and the content given to different nationalities, including the British, Germans, Irish, Italians, and Poles. These people received very little space as compared with the socalled American group, and the space varied in amount from three to eight percent of the total space in different textbooks. The most space given to the Germans in any textbook was only two and nine tenths percent while two writers gave less than one percent to them. The Irish, Italians, and Poles received less than one percent in all the textbooks examined. In general, the British received unfavorable treatment in the textbooks to the time of the Spanish-American War, while the Germans were presented in a friendly manner until after the Civil War and then the textbooks by their treatment tended to bring about an attitude of unfriendliness toward the Germans. The amount of space given to the Irish and Scotch-Irish, Italians, and Poles was too small to leave any definite impression of friendship or dislike for these peoples.

A BASIS FOR THE SELECTION OF MATERIALS IN SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING—ABSTRACT

ELMER ELLIS, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, COLUMBIA, MO.

There is a great fundamental problem before the teaching profession regarding the basis of the selection of materials for social studies teaching.

The dominant ideal among social studies teachers is to equip each citizen with as good an understanding of modern civilization as he is able to master, and with such ideals and attitudes as normally grow out of such an understanding.

Another theory, supported by an important group of curriculum builders, is that the future citizen should be directly indoctrinated with those attitudes and ideals that a "good citizen" possesses, and that this process of indoctrination should be the basis of selecting materials for the social studies courses.

This last theory is weak in that the concept of the "good citizen" possessed by its advocates is too narrow. The duties of future citizenship are so numerous and indeterminate that the best preparations for them is an objective understanding of the society in which the citizen now lives, and with those ideals and attitudes that normally grow out of such an understanding. To conceive of citizenship training as indoctrination with attitudes for specific situations, no matter how broadly considered, is essentially to desire to train citizens to live in a static society and to hamper future adjustment in a changing civilization. In a democracy such a training would result in handicapping the national society in its attempt to meet the problems that the future has in store.

OUR CONTINUED NEGLECT OF HEALTH VALUES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES—ABSTRACT

R. H. SHRYOCK, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, DUKE UNIVERSITY, DURHAM, N. C.

Authorities have overlooked the fact that there is a public as well as a personal phase of hygienic science. Medical men began to discover this in the eighteenth century, but many educators have failed to fully appreciate it to this day. Health is most certainly a social as well as a personal problem, and the social phase is certainly pertinent to the social studies. To say this is not to suggest health as a new objective in the teaching of such studies. It is simply to call attention to the importance of a contemporary public problem—often neglected—that of the public health; and the explanation of such problems has ever been one of the primary objectives most of us have had in mind as history and civics teachers.

To what extent are we now studying the problem of the public health in our social studies? To what extent do we introduce children to its history, and to what extent do we analyze the present situation? So far as the content of our history courses are concerned, the school child will never suspect that the scientific public health movement was one of the truly significant social phenomena of the nineteenth century. This is largely because the professional historians themselves are in many cases not familiar with this story and naturally do not include it in their texts. As soon as we have the historical material necessary to an understanding of the health crusade, we should include it in our history content just as we do that relating to the anti-slavery crusade. The skeptic may still inquire how all this will possess health-concerning values. Yet the reply has already been anticipated. The history of the public health movement, even as only one element among many in our historical content, will serve to some extent to introduce the student to the present problem. In a word, it is reasonable to hope that it will begin to make him health-conscious in a social sense, somewhat as a course in personal hygiene should make him health-conscious as an individual.

Once introduced to the history of his problem the student should get closer to grips with the present situation in his courses in civics or problems of democracy. If the police department is to be studied, so too should the department of public health. If the citizens' obligation to observe the criminal and civil codes is discussed, so too should his obligation to observe both the letter and the spirit of the public health code. It is true, of course, that this is done in some of our modern texts, but many still give an obviously inadequate treatment.

The most important point I wish to raise, however, is whether there are not certain eminently practical and specific things we might do in treating such a social phenomenon as quackery. Can we not teach our children the definite ear marks of the quack, such as his habit of advertising, and warn them against him? Such a training would alone be of great value to the future citizen.

MINUTES OF THE SECRETARY

The Department of Social Studies held its meetings on June 30 and July 1. The programs were presented before a group of approximately 300 interested listeners. The Monday afternoon speakers were introduced by Professor Edgar Dawson of Hunter College, New York, president of the Department. The Tuesday afternoon speakers were presented by Professor Edwin W. Pahlow of Ohio State University.

First Session, Monday, June 30, 2 p. m.

Racial Elements in American History Textbooks

Miss Thyra Carter, Acting Head of the Department of Social Studies, University of Iowa High School, Iowa City

CERTAIN CONCEPTIONS OF HISTORY

R. M. Tryon, Professor of the Teaching of History, University of Chicago

A BASIS FOR THE SELECTION OF MATERIALS IN THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Elmer Ellis, Assistant Professor of History, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri

OUR CONTINUED NEGLECT OF HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

R. H. Shryock, Associate Professor of History, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina

Second Session, Tuesday, July 1, 2:00 p. m.

EDUCATIONAL THEORY VS. THE INTEGRITY OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Clayton C. Kohl, Professor of History, State Normal College, Bowling Green, Ohio

THE DIRECT VS. THE INDIRECT ATTACK ON SOCIAL OBJECTIVES: HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

W. L. Conner, Chief, Bureau of Research, Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio

A STUDY OF SOCIAL JUDGMENTS

D. S. Morgan, Head of Department of Social Studies, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Indiana

SOME PROBLEMS FACED BY THE INVESTIGATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE SCHOOLS

A. C. Krey, Professor of History, University of Minnesota and chairman of the Commission on History and other Social Studies in the Schools, American Historical Association.

The officers elected for 1930-31 may be found in the historical note which appears at the beginning of this section of the volume of *Proceedings*.

Department of Superintendence

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE—At the meeting of the National Teachers' Association in Harrisburg, Pa., 1865, the state and city superintendents present decided to form an organization of their own. Final action was taken in Washington, D. C., in February, 1866. The new organization was called the National Association of School Superintendents.

In 1870, the National Association of School Superintendents merged into the National Education Association as a Department. In 1921, the Department was reorganized and a fulltime secretary employed. It publishes a report of its annual meeting and a yearbook which are sent only to members.

The officers of the Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Norman R. Crozier, Superintendent of Schools, Dallas, Texas; *First Vicepresident*, Frank Cody, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Mich.; *Second Vicepresident*, Daniel S. Kealey, Superintendent of Schools, Hoboken, N. J.; *Executive Secretary*, Sherwood D. Shankland, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*, Frank M. Underwood, District Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo. (Term expires 1931); Paul C. Stetson, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Ind. (Term expires 1932); David E. Weglein, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Md. (Term expires 1933); C. B. Glenn, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Ala. (Term expires 1934).

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1873:244-271
1874:297
1875:291
1877:253-261
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1882: 7-112
1883:131
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1885:160-192
1886:335-353
1887:511-538
1888:515-547
1889:613-617
1890:367-545
1891:379-527
1892:559-745
1894:252-592
1895:213-429
1896:231-391
1897:195-317
1898:303-489
1899:251-380
1900:183-297
1901:189-349
1902:151-306
1903:139-301
1904:173-333
1905:155-271
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1909:159-232
1910:143-307
1911:161-331
1912:329-499
1913: 99-355
1914:133-293
1915:253-527
1916:895-1099
1917:661-853
1918:473-685
1919:483-675
1920: 407-537
1921: 679-851
1922:1295-1465
1923: 881-1025
1924: 803-963
1925: 633-863
1926: 663-838
1927: 697-871
1928: 655-830
1929: 643-802

THE OPENING OF THE EXHIBITS

FRANK CODY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DETROIT, MICH., AND PRESIDENT, THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

FRANK BRUCE, presiding: As the Atlantic City High School band was leading us through this magnificent hall just now I discovered that Frank Cody was a good marcher but that he could not turn a corner and keep in step. We are opening this meeting this afternoon in this way because we want you all to be settled in the shortest possible time.

This exhibit is a wonderful monument to the ingenuity of the American manufacturer who is trying to make a contribution to education. Industry is making a contribution; industry is realizing that there are great changes going on in the school today. Unfortunately, some manufacturers do not realize this fact, with the result that they are marking time.

May I ask you school men as you go about visiting these exhibits to note particularly how the manufacturer is attempting to serve you. Again and again a manufacturer is quite as unselfish in the brains and the ability he is putting into his product as the school man is unselfish in trying to put himself into his product.

This afternoon the meeting will be formally opened by Frank Cody. Superintendent Cody stands as an excellent interpreter of the things that the manufacturer is thinking about and the things that the school man is thinking about. Dynamic Detroit is a great city. Mr. Cody has that wonderful ability to receive a manufacturer, find the best that is in his product, and then interpret that product to the taxpayers of his community.

It is with great pleasure, therefore, that we present President Frank Cody who will formally open this meeting as one of the finest interpreters of education in the United States.

President Cody: I wish you to know that I consider it a great honor to formally open this educational exhibit in this sun-kissed and some-kissed city by the sea.

I wish to pay my respects to the exhibitors because they are making a very definite contribution to our program. They are good fellows and I respect them because they don't always keep in step. I don't care much for the person who always keeps in step. So, Mr. Chairman, I am glad to be associated with this particular group. I wish to congratulate you upon the fact that you have this fine showing, and to assure you that we consider it a very important part of the Atlantic City meeting. This exhibit is now formally opened by the President of the Department of Superintendence. I thank you.

THE SPIRIT OF LIFE

DR. REINHOLD NIEBUHR, UNION THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

PRESIDENT CODY: It is with personal pleasure that I present the speaker of the afternoon. For a long time he was pastor of one of the churches in my home city and he gave to the city a fine administration of church life and made a contribution to its spiritual and civic development which will not be forgotten for a long time in the City of Detroit. It is a privilege and a pleasure at this time to present the speaker of the afternoon, Dr. Reinhold Niebuhr, of the Union Theological Seminary.

Reinhold Niebuhr: I appreciate Mr. Cody's confidence in me, but I must confess that it has overreached itself this time in the topic which he has assigned me, "The Spirit of Life." It reminds me of a story that Professor William James used to tell of a student who came to him with a topic for his Ph. D. thesis. He said, "I have thought of all kinds of topics but finally decided to write on the subject, 'The universe and what is in it.' " I feel, therefore, that I will have to limit my topic, and I will do so as you will see later on.

The spirit of life is energy, plus reason, plus something which is neither energy nor reason, but related to both, out of which springs poetry, man's imaginative life and religion—you may call it imagination. Life in its lower levels is crude impulse, impulse seeking immediate ends, finding immediate satisfaction; but when idea is added to impulse, man becomes conscious of himself, becomes conscious of the world, becomes conscious of the world as he becomes conscious of himself, and becomes conscious of himself as he becomes conscious of the world. Intelligence is added to impulse, and it regulates and chooses between the various impulses. Man begins to make choices between the ends which he desires. He satisfies his hunger, he propagates his kind, he relates himself to others, he expresses his feeling in art. In all this there is the satisfaction of impulse, and by his reason he begins to compare, evaluate, choose. Intelligence makes his life selective; not only that, it puts him in touch with a larger and larger environment.

The animal is immediately and automatically related to its environment. Man is never so related for the reason that he builds himself a new environment in each generation. His intelligence reaches out; he finds larger and larger worlds; his intelligence increases the capacity of his eye and of his ear. He comes in contact with the universes and with the stellar spaces, and relates himself to other peoples. Intelligence, in other words, directs impulse on the one hand and on the other hand creates a larger world in which impulse can express itself and find its satisfaction.

What I would like you to deal with particularly this afternoon is the tragic character of man's spiritual life coming out of the peculiar fact that his intelligence seems always to create more problems than his reason can solve. Man's reason is a problem-solving device, but it is also a problem-creating device. Man, by reaching self-consciousness and world-consciousness raises himself out of the simple harmony of impulsive life in which the animal and primitive man lives; he builds himself a world too great and too complex to live in very easily. That is the tragedy which has overcome modern man particularly. Our intelligence has first of all created a world too large for our imagination and for our social sympathy.

It is a significant fact that the technological achievements of modern man—those which have expressed themselves in the steamboat, the railroad, the telegraph, the cable, and finally the airplane and the radio—came to birth, or shall we say were heralded, by a great world of art. Man, dreaming of unity, believing that he could achieve unity automatically as his intelligence increased his horizon and broadened his outlook, was carried into a universal conflict. We are living in a world in which a higher degree of technological achievement, and to a certain degree a higher intelligence, brings us in closer and closer contact with all the world, but we haven't the intelligence, and there is no immediate prospect of achieving the intelligence by which we may make our common life sufferable.

All education which sharpens men's wit and which makes the experience of the past available for the present has not sufficed to solve this tragic problem of man's modern life. We are related on terms of intimacy with all the worlds as our fathers were not related to this world which has suddenly become a neighborhood. We carry in all the tribal prejudices, all the natural bigotries, all the inevitable parochialism of the common man. I don't know anything about how geography is taught. I imagine it is taught with much more imagination than in the days when I went to school; but no matter how much imagination we put into our teaching of geography or history, it remains a fact that today we have a generation upon our hands which is trying to solve man's commonest interest in this united world with undeveloped imagination, lack of social sympathy. Our education has not yet given us the capacity to put ourselves into other people's places, to regard virtues which are not our virtues as real virtues, to appreciate standards as being high standards even if they are not our standards, to regard people with different complexions, outlooks upon life, and historical backgrounds as being as worthy as we are.

Parochialism is the inevitable vice of the ordinary uncultured and undisciplined mind. One would imagine that with a tremendous educational advance we would have disciplined the mind sufficiently so that people would no longer live in their little tribal prejudices which makes conflict between races and classes in nations inevitable in our modern world. But our educational advance seems to have done not very much more for us than to enlarge our units of conflict. Our fathers fought clan with clan, race with race, tribe with tribe, and group with group, and now we fight nation with nation; moreover there is some prospect that instead of looking forward to universal peace we may have to look forward to an intercontinental warfare where continents will be united in the unit of conflict.

Since it is a matter of both imagination and intelligence, all the resources of religion and education, it seems to me, have to unite for the task of creating enough social imagination and intelligence to make it possible for people really to live together without covering each other with mud and blood, to make it possible for them to suffer the intitmacy into which we have been thrown in the modern world without making our common life a source of misery. To create this social imagination and intelligence is the challenge that comes to everyone who is guiding the education and the mental, religious, and moral discipline of our generation.

It seems tragic that we should have given ourselves so completely to the technological task of uniting this world mechanically and should have been so remiss in giving ourselves to the spiritual, moral, and intellectual task of uniting this world intellectually and spiritually.

As one sees people add rational discipline, graduate year upon graduate year in our schools, and coming out with very few prejudices disarranged, one wonders sometimes whether or not we educators are in a sorry business not of giving people better opinions but only better reasons for their indifferent opinions.

To create a world in which man will understand his brother, in which he will try to put himself in his brother's place (which is the basis of all decent social life), to create a world in which differences of social, rational, and cultural background will not lead inevitably to conflict—this is the task which confronts our generation, and if it remains unsolved, it will lead inevitably to tragedy. We have created not only a larger world than we can decently live in, we have created a more complex world than we can decently live in.

Your modern city, your modern factory, and your great machines which created the city are indeed great achievements. Modern man may well be proud of this achievement, but it has given us a complexity of social life for which we have not yet found the key. In the complex interdependence of our modern life, where every man's weal and woe depends upon every other man's action, we do not yet know how to live with each other.

When we think that at this very moment while we are enjoying the privileges of this great resort, there should be something like four million people walking the wintry streets of America, thrown out of employment by the very same machine that makes life so comfortable and sufferable for you and for me; when we realize that we have not begun to solve the social problem which has been created by our tremendous industrial advance; when we remember that the same machine which gives us such great privileges in our modern life makes it almost inevitable that the man who has nothing to sell but his hands will be thrown out of employment by the time he reaches fifty or fifty-five, and that he is living in a civilization which hasn't enough social imagination to feel any sense of responsibility for his old age; when we think that this civilization problem, with its technological achievements, hasn't begun to think of this human task, we see how technological intelligence is continually outrunning social intelligence, how we are enlarging the instruments of our power, of our privilege, and of our conquest of nature, but that we have not yet learned how to make of them instruments of the common weal.

Isn't it an interesting thing that whenever we sublimate our body, (and that is practically what all modern invention has done,) enlarge our hands so we can reach to the ends of the earth, enlarge our limbs so that we can pass o'er land and ocean without rest, enlarge our ears so that we can hear from the ends of the earth, we have not yet solved any question as to what use this new power will be put to. In fact, it seems that every time man sublimates his flesh by a new invention, he has to conquer that flesh anew.

After ages we may have brought some physical impulse under the dominion of intelligence and conscience, but just as soon as we increase the power of that impulse we have to go through the whole task again of bringing it under the dominion of conscience.

If I remember correctly, that great invention, the moving picture machine, was first of all used for pornographic purposes, but gradually it was brought to be an instrument of education. I think that is significant because it shows the history of almost every one of man's modern machines. Each new enlargement of his powers seems to be first of all appropriated by the lowest possible impulse, and only by great planning and by tortuous discipline does man finally bring his tremendous power under discipline of reason and of conscience. I am not sure that the radio and other similar instruments of our own generation were misappropriated first of all, but I do remember that even the enlargement of the human voice on the radio was not immediately used for the highest cultural purpose that it is today. There is a story told about the Washington Disarmament Conference in 1921, which, as you remember, was about contemporaneous with the coming of the radio. One of our diplomats, with a Japanese diplomat, stepped reverently before this new machine. The American diplomat was enlarging upon the tremendous achievement that had made this radio possible, and as he turned the dial, the first thing they heard were the words of that immortal song "Yes, sir, she's my baby."

Every enlargement of man's physical capacity seems to be appropriated first of all by some low impulse, or else it simply leads to some kind of new confusion.

To bring order out of this confusion, to make this new social complexity sufferable for man—that is a problem which invites the application of the highest intelligence to the greatest degree of social imagination. Isn't it probably true that we are conducting the affairs of this highly complex industrial civilization of ours today by the traditions of our fathers whose experience is not at all relevant to our life? Isn't it the business of education not only to transmit the experience of the fathers to their children but to be selective about it?

There is always something in the past that belongs to us, and education is always making available the experience of the fathers for the experience of the children, but there is always something in the past which is not relevant to our life and to our experience. One of the tragic circumstances of man's life is that each generation tries to solve its problems by the traditions of another generation, the experiences of which are not quite relevant. Will we ever have a generation, will we ever have an educational process flexible enough to make it possible to have a generation, which will solve its own problems by traditions or new insights which are altogether relevant to its own experience? Isn't it true that the traditions of our fathers (I am thinking now of our American fathers) were largely individualistic? They conquered these vast prairies of ours, a nation of pioneers, always a nation of individualists.

A great deal of spiritual, moral, and social good came out of the individualistic tradition of freedom. We are in a different kind of a world today. The prairies are conquered and we are herding together in vast cities where the life and the social policy of every leader is of tremendous importance to millions of followers. How can we run this kind of a civilization with individualistic traditions? This is not a civilization which is going to be guided by ideals of independence but by ideals of interdependence. Until we learn how dependent we are upon each other in the complexities of our industrial and social life, we will continue to bring misery upon millions of our fellowmen, even while we enjoy the benefits of this civilization.

It seems to me a tremendously challenging thing for anyone who deals with the transmission of the experience of the past and the adjustment, perfection, and amendment of that experience to the modern day. It seems to me a tremendously challenging thing for anyone who is dealing with this task to look carefully and reverently at the past so that nothing which has emerged out of the experience of the fathers that is worthwhile may be lost, and to look also experimentally, adventurously, and openmindedly into our own days so that we may amend, reject, and perfect what comes out of the past. Then what was virtue for our fathers may not become a vice for us.

In the complexities of our modern life, we have had not only the task of controling the machine so that it will bring good to all men, but we have had the task of solving the curious divorce between man's work and his life. There was a time when all the creative satisfaction men needed was gained in their toil. The hand-craftsman was something of an artist, and so was the cobbler who made the shoe, but today in the complexity of our life we have divorced toil from life. A man who stands at the automatic machine is progressively less interested in his work and cannot help but be. He is bound to regard his work as a necessary evil and to set up as a standard of social life the reducing of the hours of his work to an irreducible minimum.

L. P. Jacks, the great philosopher of England, some time ago lectured the working people for having set up the dogma that work was an evil and had to be reduced to an irreducible minimum. There is something rather terrible about this new doctrine that work is an evil and that if we can reduce it to six hours or four hours we will be happier. There is something terrible about that, but it ill behooves professional people, teachers, preachers, artists, and what not, to lecture people who stand before an automatic machine and can find no creative satisfaction in their toil.

We have a task today to give man new creative satisfactions. Our intelligence has created this divorce between work and life. Our intelligence must be equal to the task of relating work to life again and if this cannot be done, then to find some satisfaction in life itself.

We are emphasizing in our schools with a finer insight than ever before the cultural values which must come out of education, the refinements of imagination which will make it possible for people to appropriate the great art of the ages. We still have a long way to go when we realize how many people go from hectic work to hectic pleasure, finding satisfaction in neither.

We recognize that we have a generation upon our hands which will not be saved to a certain degree until it is saved in its leisure, until it knows how to make creative use of its leisure, until it can by the use of leisure hours develop profound insights and emotions, and give satisfaction to, and articulation of high aspirations. There is a tragedy about this generation that works so hard for its leisure and then when it comes, doesn't know what to do with it except to follow the crooning of a Rudy Vallee as art.

We have not only divorced work from life but we have divorced the life of the individual, particularly of the most eminent, successful, and masterly individual from his society. The more complex life becomes, the more specialists it needs to guide its various destinies. We have become specialists. We are dividing each specialty to a higher and higher degree. We are becoming, as someone said, specialists whose function in society may be defined as a people who know more and more about less and less.

These specialists are necessary for the guidance of our life and the complexities of the modern world, but they are paying a high price for their specialization. One of the reasons, it seems to me, why our big cities are in such great difficulty is because each citizen of a large city is no longer a citizen as men once were in the primitive community. He is a specialist. He has no sense of social obligation to this large social mass in which he lives. He perhaps moves out to the suburbs where he creates a little paradise in order to escape the more infernal characteristics of the city's life. His life is bound by his family interests and sometimes he doesn't give himself to those. He is a specialist.

We are to a certain degree becoming a nation of undereducated experts who know some little area of life but have no sense of responsibility for the whole of life, who are giving themselves diligently to some social task in their society but who have no intelligent understanding for the whole of their society. To create enough political imagination, political intelligence, and sense of social responsibility to make life in our great aggregate communities sufferable is a task which must be solved by modern intelligence. Intelligence has created this problem, but intelligence has not yet solved it.

Intelligence destroys inner unities more quickly than it creates them. Primitive man lived a simple life in his primitive community, his tasks were all set for him, his loyalties were all made for him. He had a simple relationship to his family and the family had a simple relationship to the community. He probably inherited his job from his father. He knew nothing of that conflict of loyalties in which the modern man lives, nothing of that conflict of interest, nothing of those distracting and diffusing forces of life which are destroying the inner unity of mankind. It is not surprising that the insanity rate is increasing continually in modern civilization; it is rather surprising that the ratio of increase is not greater. It is not surprising that we are needing more and more psychiatrists. We shall need many more thousands than we have.

Walter Lippmann, in his interesting book *A Preface to Morals,* speaking of man's simple unity of life for the complexities of the modern day says that we imagined for a time that freedom would solve all of our difficulties—freedom from ancient loyalties, freedom from ancient traditions. We have discovered that man's problem only begins when he has freedom. The best proof of it, Mr. Lippmann goes on to say, is by the generation of modern people who have learned how to defy a fundamentalist god but don't seem to be altogether happy; by the nation of modern women (I think Mr. Lippmann isn't quite just to modern women; I am quoting him and not myself) who have been emancipated from loyalties to father, husband, or brother; learned how to endure freedom with the intermittent and expensive aid of psychiatrists, while they continue their tasks as interior decorators; a world in which life's simple impulses have been frustrated to a great degree, in which we have not learned how we may sublimate the impulses correctly, in which loyalties and traditions are in conflict with one another, in which the simple unities where the peasant lives his life have been destroyed by a high degree of self-analysis and world-analysis.

This world needs a new kind of intelligence, a high kind of introspective imagination. We have been at this task of helping people to find themselves. We see such evidences of it as the emphasis upon sex education in the schools, upon vocational guidance on the other hand, and another effort, psychology—the last of the sciences to reach popular education—but think how far we must still go until we help this confused and perplexed modern man, living in a society which he does not understand, propelled by impulses which he cannot fathom, to find some new unity of life, to achieve some great passion or conviction, or some loyalty to a great tradition, or to give himself to a vocational task and program, or so to analyze himself that he can bring the various and multifarious forces of his life under the dominion of a central passion. To do these things requires a kind of intelligence and a kind of an educational process more difficult than simply to present the new facts and the new world to him.

We have in modern education, in the development of modern intelligence, destroyed energy to a greater degree than we have been able to recreate it. Life, you remember we began by saying, is impulse plus ideal, energy plus reason, plus something more which seems to go beyond inner imagination. But now we encounter the rational forces of life which bring impulse under control, the rational intellectual forces of life which order and discipline the tumult of energy which is at the basis of life. These same rational forces which bring infrarational forces under control seem also to destroy the ultrarational forces of life, man's imagination, his poetry, the dreams that he has of a better world, the energy by which he gives himself to this better world, the irrational and ultrarational dynamic which is the basis of his life. It is so necessary to bring man's prejudices, bigotries, and impulses under the control of reason, and there are so many people who suffer from the miseries created by unreason that there are not very many people who are willing to admit that anything evil can come out of the cultivation of intelligence or the rational approach to life. But look at the facts in our modern day. Isn't it true that life is itself unreasonable and that any person who gives himself with any degree of energy to any task is not altogether reasonable? How can I rationalize my life? How can I prove that I have a right to be here or that the goal that I have set for myself is reasonable in any exact meaning of that term? Isn't it true that the more rational we become, if we do not also support our reason by poetry, imagination, and religion, the more life's energies are enervated?

Isn't there something tragic about the fact that after we take our children through the schools and high schools and colleges, giving all of this devotion to them, to the cultivation of their minds and the discipline of their insights, that they should so frequently, and as is particularly true of America where there is a good deal of sophomoric intellectualism, come out with no other insight than the conviction that life isn't worth living?

The very reason which cultivates and disciplines life may easily destroy the energies and the impulses by which life moves on. I dare say that there isn't a single one of you, however devoted you may be to your particular vocational task, who could rationalize that task in terms of some ultimate irrefutable goal. You have a goal, we all have goals, but they are religious; they are not reasonable goals. Here is a man, for instance, who believes that all education ought to be for the purpose of cultivating a more democratic way of life. I wouldn't know myself how to put it better than to say that all education ought to individualize people on the one hand, socialize them on the other, and make it possible for them to have mutual relationships for their fellowmen. But the idea that democracy is a rational goal of life is itself an irrational prejudice.

Here is a man like Clyde Bell, for example, who is very sure that democracy isn't the goal of life at all but that aristocracy is, that you will never have the highest kind of life until the multitudes are made to feed the genius of the few, that you will never have any great art or literature until you destroy democracy and have a new aristocracy. Now as between the goal of a John Dewey and the goal of a Clyde Bell, how are you going to rationalize a thing? I maintain that the faith in democracy which moves the great rational people is an irrational faith. That is their religion, at least a part of their religion, and as long as they can hold to it, they can be effective people. If they reason too much about it, perhaps then that last remnant of their religion will be gone.

There are a great many young people in our colleges today who, reading Mr. Joseph Wood Krutch's *The Modern Temper*—and that book, by the way, is the complete symbol of the sophistication which befalls a modern intellectual—have come to the conclusion that nothing can be done about this civilization, that you can't save it, that we can't save ourselves, that the best we can do now, to use Mr. Krutch's phrase, is to wait for the influx of a simpler people whose minds are not yet ripe for despair.

Happily whenever we reach bottom in a spirit of intellectual sophistication which destroys all goals and enervates all energies, there is usually a new influx of feeling, energy, irrational goals, and higher religious purpose.

There appeared in America's greatest literary magazine the other day a little poem. I suppose it isn't a poem, but it seems to me to point to the fact that the tide has begun to come in, or at least that there is a new tendency in modern life. We are tired of pure rationalism and pure intellectualism and we realize that life in its ultimate basis is irrational, that it has an irrational energy and an irrational goal. The verse runs like this:

It's quite the thing now to write verses, like curses,
Sophisticated bards, from their noses and roses,
And sing that inconstancy vexes the sexes,
That life's a swindle and that dryads don't thrive.
But to me while they are posing and frowning,
Old Browning bursts heartily with his cheering, unfearing,
With a blast from his shoulder like Roland and Woden,
And blows them away to Gehenna.
No sinner makes accurate the wine that he pours us,
He bores us at times by his boast and robusto
But gusto is better at least than combining with whining,
The wise cracks of Main Street Manhattan.
Roll that in your cigarette papers,
You sneerers and cheerers.

To discipline life without destroying its energies, to refine the impulses of life without enervating them, to create the union between life's highest rational and its highest ultrarational forces—that seems to me the most challenging of all the problems which face those of us who are guiding each new generation.

GREETINGS FROM NEW JERSEY

CHARLES H. ELLIOTT, STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, TRENTON, N. J.

I consider it an honor to be invited by this great Association to present for the state government the greetings of New Jersey in welcoming the delegates and their friends of the Department of Superintendence to our state. We welcome you to a state that is proud of its history and traditions. We believe that you will be interested in our rural schools, in our system of supervision by help of the teachers, in our vocational schools, and in the extent and range of school work offered in our boroughs and cities.

You will be welcome in any of the schools of the state. The capital city of Trenton, and Camden, just across the river from Philadelphia, are each only two hours distant by motor. Newark, Jersey City, Paterson, Elizabeth, Bayonne, and the other cities of the northern industrial area are only about three hours distant from Atlantic City by train, and near at hand, all about us, is rural New Jersey.

You will be welcome in the State Department of Public Instruction in Trenton, in which offices we shall be glad to arrange with you to visit any of the schools in which you may be interested.

New Jersey is a state which although small in area presents in very compact form tremendous variations. More than fifty percent of the population of the state live in communities of 25,000 or more inhabitants, and 80 percent in communities of 2,500 or more. The population density varies from fewer than 50 to the square mile in Ocean County, a distinctly rural county, to 18,000 per square mile in Hudson County. With the towering skyscrapers of New York in our plain vision, they remind us that we are part of the commercial and industrial life which they typify, and it may be worthwhile to remind you that the interstate tubes, exclusive of the vehicular and railroad tunnels, annually transport a number of persons equal possibly to the population of the United States.

Wedged between the western world's great metropolis, New York, on the one hand, and Philadelphia, one of the great cities of the country on the other, one finds that in thirteen of the twenty-one counties in the state, agriculture continues to be a substantial industry. In contrast to this, forty percent of the population is engaged in manufacturing and mechanical industries, about twenty percent in trade and transportation, and some twelve percent in clerical occupations. In a state which has seventy-two percent of its population thus employed, it is evident that a school system that can meet presentday conditions must be adjusted to this throbbing industrial and commercial life.

In the past thirty-five years the state has shifted very decidedly from an agricultural and manufacturing state to a state whose main interests are manufacturing and commerce. Very recently there has been submitted to the legislature the report of the Educational Survey Commission created by the legislature of 1928. This report brings education into bold relief upon the background which I have been describing. In constructive terms it points out to us those lines of development which must be undertaken if education in our state would serve all the people effectively, for New Jersey epitomizes the conditions which one meets in other parts of the country, but we have in more definite form than in many other places most of the ills and the complicated problems that confront states in the development of present-day education.

Industrialism as it affects education in this state emphasizes among other things the need for changes in the field of secondary education. It also emphasizes the decided need for an extensive system of vocational education.

Although we are very proud of our rank in the sisterhood of states as measured in the various indexes that have been proposed, we appreciate that New Jersey is now entering upon a new era in educational development. The coming into our midst at this particular time of this great Association is to us an inspiration and a professional stimulus that will have far-reaching influence.

I would have you know that whereas we recognize the need for development in certain fields of administration and in the great fields of practical and general education, nevertheless our profession in this state has for a long time been interested in the movements that have to do with more complete development of the individual. For many years the study of individual differences of children has been a routine part of public school administration. Out of this have emerged well conceived and workable plans to serve retarded children, those capable of acceleration, and those who can be grouped in terms of similar interests and aptitudes. More recently, the educational procedures, variously denominated in new education, progressive education, or creative education, have received marked attention. There is a merger in Jersey, as I see it, a philosophy of education which takes its point of departure from the individual child and the use of his interests and creative abilities to the end of developing a complete and resourceful personality.

I have been much interested in the theme of this convention, and particularly in the analysis of education in terms of the spirit of life. I have touched briefly upon the practical, the ideal, and the progressive. We probably need more than any other state, however, to develop the recreative side of life, because New York will not permit us to sleep, and our matchless resorts like the one in which we meet would seem to make a recreative program superfluous. That life is cooperative is no better demonstrated than by the cooperative endeavor of legislators, laymen, and school men in conducting our educational survey. This attitude is again evident of the cooperative spirit of boards of education and professional school men on one hand and the legislature on the other.

Through the cooperation of our cities, but best of all through the teamwork of our high-school boys and girls, New Jersey presents this evening to the educators of the country a musical program by the New Jersey All-State High-School Orchestra, an organization in which we take much pride.

As a further contribution to the cooperative phase of living and doing, New Jersey, through its State Teachers' Association, its Council of Education, its Schoolmasters' Club, the City of Atlantic City, and the State Department of Education, has developed a great pageant as its contribution to your program. New Jersey has been honored thus to serve.

The experience of many persons engaged in the work of the school system and their acquaintance with the rich and colorful pageantry that has been developed from time to time to depict for our own people the glorious history of one of the original states has been integrated and made available for our contribution to education in the spirit of life.

That life is friendly we trust to demonstrate in the hours during which this convention meets. We welcome you into our midst and I do this as the representative of the state government, with the hope that we may be able to demonstrate a friendliness in interstate relationships and in intergroup relationships. We wish to be of some help in developing a social spirit in this convention that shall be productive of lasting friendships in this great common cause of American public education which is at once the most extensive undertaking the world has ever seen and the most important responsibility of local and state government.

PRESENTATION OF GAVEL

CHARLES B. BOYER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ATLANTIC CITY, N. J.

Dr. Cody, realizing that you have to have the proper implements of warfare to preside over a gathering of this type, it is my pleasure this morning on behalf of the boys of our workshop department of the public schools of this city to present to you the implements necessary to preside over a gathering of this kind. I trust that you will use them to good advantage during this week and that you will take them with you to your home and that you will keep these as a remembrance of the boys and girls, and the teachers of Atlantic City who have done so much for the success of the meeting this year, 1930, of the Department of Superintendence.

President Cody: Dr. Boyer, to you who for forty years have been superintendent of schools of this city, I extend my "thank you." I also extend to the State of New Jersey the thanks of the Department for the splendid part they have played in making this convention a success, and to you, my dear sir, we hope for many years of pleasant work in the schools of Atlantic City. I thank you and I shall use this gavel to preserve order and as an anesthetic for overtime speakers.

Fellow Teachers, it is my pleasure at this time to welcome you to this city by the sea. I have the great pleasure to announce to you this morning that the Secretary of Navy, through the President of this Department, now confers upon you the "freedom of the sees."

It is now my pleasure to declare the sixtieth meeting of the Department of Superintendence officially in session.

EDUCATION IN THE SPIRIT OF LIFE

FRANK CODY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DETROIT, MICH.

Education in the spirit of life is education that is the embodiment of our present civilization; education that gives to youth only those experiences of the race that have a direct meaning and use in the world today. The religious philosophy of the ancient Hebrew, the art and culture of classic Athens, the body of law of the old Roman state are all of value to us only insofar as they are transferable to our modern age. The Roman tribune in and of himself has no particular interest for us, but as the predecessor of the representative of the people in modern democratic government he makes a definite contribution.

Mathematics, a finely sharpened tool, forged with long effort from primitive number systems for the intricate calculations of astronomy and the other sciences, has little value save as a tool. Abstract generalizations are for the scientist in his laboratory. Arithmetic of the everyday business world, and not the binomial theorem, is necessary for the average citizen.

The long story of history is for us an account of the evolution of civilization up to the present time. Wars and the exploits of famous generals fade in importance before the great contributions of statesmen, of men of letters, and of scientists whose achievements have shaped our present social order. Caesar's conquest of Gaul no longer concerns anyone except second-year Latin students, but his organization of provincial governments centralized in Rome is still of vital interest. Aristotle, more than Alexander; Newton, more than Napoleon, should be glorified. History should be not a mere accumulation of facts about the past, but a means for cultivating breadth of view, tolerance, and wisdom. Arid and useless chronicles must give way to a vitalized history that seeks to replace archaic ideals, fears, and superstitions by truths that conform to the actual situations of today. We are what we are today because of the past. Our languages, laws, customs, religions, all prove this. We cannot escape the inevitable hold of the past. To understand it is to understand ourselves. It behooves us, then, to become more historically-minded, to seek to interpret the lessons of the race, social, moral, and intellectual for the betterment of the world today.

Education in the spirit of life must recognize and use the great motive forces that control living. Life is progressive. It is continually advancing. Education must discard the outgrown categories of thought of a bygone age, and acquire a scientific attitude in order to understand and carry forward the amazing discoveries of our age. Scientific achievement has upset the old social order. Education must be open-minded, flexible, and ready to cope with new situations, mental, social, and physical. We cannot sit in our classrooms and prate on mid-Victorian virtues to sophisticated young people who smile at old fogies. We must make their sophistication scientific and intelligent, and a new social order will result that is sure and firm, based not on an obnoxious Mrs. Grundy, but on reason.

This does not mean that we will discard all our timeworn conventions. In spite of the intoxicating newness of our rapidly changing order, we must hold steadfastly to the race's great spiritual truths in terms of modern life, and adjust the machinery of our educational organization to the new situation. Education may be the same at heart, but she must not wear hoop skirts in the days of bobbed hair.

Life is practical. Education must be usable. We are no longer training for a leisure class. The laws of our land compel the young people to remain in school long beyond childhood. We must give them skill in some line of remunerative work. We must turn out a product that is not only good, but good for something. Every path through our schools should lead to some definite goal, whether it comes at the end of a professional course in the university, or a partime continuation school. We must know the professional and industrial world for which we are training the workers of tomorrow. It is no longer enough for a teacher to have a theoretical knowledge of his subject. He must know how to use it in a practical field of endeavor.

Vocational knowledge should be a part of the equipment of every teacher, and vocational experts should be continually active in bringing into our schools the results of investigations of industrial conditions. We might amend the Ordinance of 1787 to read, "Religion, morality, good government, and the ability to fill a useful place in the world being necessary to the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

Life is dynamic. Education must be vital, alive, active. It is deeply concerned with the social and industrial problems of the age. Since the war our American life has become intensely restless. We are all caught in a veritable whirlpool of change and discovery. Our educational institutions cannot resist the tide. Education can no longer be conservative and academic. It cannot sit back and be content to observe and reflect. It must act. Research and investigations of all sorts should terminate in a definite course of action for the betterment of society. The progressive scientific attitude should carry on into accomplishment. It is useless to send out questionnaires only to file away the results. They must be used to direct instruction along the main tendencies of our time. Let "Skill is wisdom in action" be the slogan of our dynamic education.

Life is recreative. We must train for leisure. Here again the changes in our physical environment have upset the old order. Machinery has given the workman more leisure and hence more temptations. Increased leisure brings with it a possibility of social disintegration. Education needs a constructive program in true recreation—both in a spiritual and physical sense. A comprehensive health education teaching the joy of physical exercise and clean athletics should form a large part of every child's training. Games of physical prowess, the sheer joy of exercise, "The cool silver shock of a plunge in the pool's living water," have had recognized educational value since the days of Plato.

True education is based not on a pragmatic philosophy alone, but it must widen the scope and deepen the meaning of our esthetic experience as well. Education for leisure will stress a training for the appreciation of all that is fine in music, art, and literature. Music is coming rapidly to the front in our schools today. School bands, orchestras, and choruses are bringing joy and beauty into what has been too often a drab dreary day. Literature that is fine and uplifting and at the same time interesting and understandable should be read for enjoyment, not scanned and analyzed. Art in every form—industrial, domestic, commercial, interior decorating, painting, or sculpture, or any art that teaches appreciation of beauty—should be welcome in our schools.

Life is friendly. Education is not a cold austere duty, but a journey down a friendly road. Such education has no traffic with race prejudices or dogmatic differences in creed. It strives always to maintain a proper balance between individual freedom and the welfare of the group. The teacher is not a severe taskmaster in a dreary round of discipline, but a kind companionable leader in a congenial and inspiring place.

Life is cooperative. Education has a twofold duty to the community. It must reflect the will of the people, and at the same time strive to raise the standards of life of the community. Our schools are what the people want them to be. If they are good, it is because we have had the trust and loyal support of the public. It is the earnest wish of every parent's heart to give his child the best opportunity that life affords. The public school stands for that opportunity. It is the most American institution in our land. It has grown up in our soil, the very essence of American ideals of democracy and equal opportunity for all. Schools have demanded the largest portion of our taxes and the people have gladly given it. It rests with us to be sure that "For value received we promise to pay." Our schools cannot be aloof from the community. They must be a part of it. Their doors should always be open to the people who own them. Teachers and parents must strive together for the betterment of our children.

Society has always put definite rewards upon certain lines of achievement, and the young people have striven for the best of these rewards. In our early colonial history, the ministry claimed the highest approval of the social order, and most educated young men aspired to that calling. Another period stressed the value of legal training, and the law schools were the most active fields of competition. Today engineering and business are claiming the attention of our youth because the social order so ordains. Should our people suddenly revere music and art above everything else, we would turn out great musicians and artists. Our schools are but the reflection of the ideals and desires of the community.

The bringing together of all the peoples of the earth so that the daily news circles the globe will undoubtedly bring about unprecedented cooperation. This is already evident in the present movement for world peace. The very existence of this organization, the Department of Superintendence, indicates a desire on the part of the various states for cooperation in education. Cooperation on a large scale is characteristic of modern enterprises. Business and science have learned to appreciate the advantages which come from united effort. There is evidence on every hand that American schools are increasingly seeking opportunities to exchange experiences and to gain from contacts with one another.

For more than a century the federal government has actively supported and influenced education through grants of land, through special appropriations, through the conduct of certain training institutions, and through the organization of divisions within the federal departments, notably the Office of Education and the Children's Bureau. These manifold educational activities of the government have been inaugurated from time to time by enthusiastic supporters who apparently held the most diverse views with regard to the fundamental relation of the federal government to states and local communities. Every conceivable type of grant and of organization can be found in operation at the present time, some with control, others without, some having the purpose of stimulating, some the purpose of equalizing, some for special groups of citizens, some for the whole nation.

President Hoover, finding this conflicting and confused practise, has called into counsel, through Secretary Wilbur, fifty representative leaders in education in a National Advisory Committee on Education and has asked them to chart for the government a consistent course of action. The President has also organized advisory committees to develop plans for promoting child health and welfare and to find methods of reducing illiteracy. The policy of the President in thus providing for a fundamental study of educational policies deserves the most enthusiastic approval of all members of our profession. Never before in our national history has such an opportunity been presented to educators to exhibit broad statesmanship. It is clear that all should unite in marshaling through the President's committees the highest wisdom that our profession can command to the end that education may now secure that recognition which it deserves and that form of national cooperation which shall contribute most fully to its successful operation.

One agency which is active in bringing about educational cooperation is the American Council on Education, a national organization of which this Department is a constituent member. The Council has sponsored a number of important enterprises of national scope, the most recent of which was the study of modern language teaching. Within the last ten months it has organized ten of the large school systems of the country into a group actively engaged in preparing, through the school systems, reading materials which shall supplement the present curriculum by introducing material which emphasizes the social import of all teaching. The cooperating school systems have held a highly productive conference, and active work is under way which it is confidently expected will facilitate the development of the social program of the schools.

There remains one last division of our theme. Life is idealistic; education must aim high. The ultimate ideal of true education is to develop character, to guide young people to the highest and strongest spiritual grounds, to keep ever before them the loftiest, most challenging conceptions of human worth, and above all to elevate their own estimate of their individual worth and possibilities. Education that has failed to do this has lost its own soul. As we would have life, so must our education be.

Our government is the greatest experiment of democracy in all history. Whether it shall stand or fall depends upon the education of its future citizens. President Hoover, who continually stresses the responsibility of education for future growth, says, "With the growth of ideals through education, with the higher realization of freedom, of justice, of humanity, of service, the selfish impulses become less and less dominant."

Surely the teacher of today stands in a very responsible position. In the last analysis, our education rests on the classroom teacher. Buildings, equipment, organizations are but bulwarks to strengthen him. The seven outlooks of life that I have mentioned are the outlooks of the real teacher. If he is progressive, practical, dynamic, recreative, friendly, cooperative, and idealistic, our schools will be likewise, and we may more nearly reach the idea of the great Teacher who came that "We might have life and have it more abundantly."

FRIENDLINESS IN PUPIL-TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS

MRS. EDITH B. JOYNES, NORFOLK, VA.

Education is a failure if it does not stimulate wholesome desires and attitudes. The development of wholesome attitudes is the result of friendships formed between pupils and teacher. The teacher must know his children as members of the home circle. He must know personally the family group from which each child comes, because sound psychology and pedagogy require that teaching be done in the terms of the lives of the pupils, in the terms of the environment with which they are familiar. The surest way for the teacher to learn to understand the background upon which the work of the school must be projected is to visit the homes of the pupils.

If the parents understand the school policies and educational principles, the teacher will succeed in his work. The attitude of the home is often reflected by the attitude of the children in the schoolroom. You may say that the teacher hasn't time to make these contacts with the home. But if any teacher will analyze his own experience he will admit that many evenings he has loafed, while a profitable and happy evening might have been spent by the fireside of some pupil's home. This friendship with pupils often begins by making friends with the entire home.

When these human contacts are made, you no longer see schools conducted on the principle made immortal by Mr. Dooley—"It doesn't matter what you teach a boy so long as he doesn't like it." You know how many times a subject has been rammed down a child's throat. In such cases you succeed in teaching the facts but wrong attitudes have been developed. You know that the subjectmatter is forgotten in a short time. The important part of your education is the impression teachers have made on your life. The relationship between Helen Keller and Miss Sullivan is a fine example of the impression that teacher makes on pupil.

Helen Keller says, "It was my teacher's genius, her quick sympathy, her loving tact which made the first years of my education so beautiful. I feel that her being is inseparable from my own and that the footsteps of my life are in hers. All the best of me belongs to her. There is not a talent, or an inspiration, or a joy in me that has not been awakened by her loving touch."

It is especially true today that this individual contact is most necessary, because to a certain extent it is abandoned in society where all action is done by collective interests. The complexities of modern economic, social, and political life have necessitated cooperative action among individuals and groups. Only through education can organized society successfully assume the task of balancing individualism with the new forms of cooperation and if possible advance both. So through this friendship, not only mental abilities are trained, but also the broader qualities of conduct and character.

Every student develops a sense of appreciation if he likes the teacher. And the teacher who in turn loves his boys and girls is bound to succeed.

He realizes it is not subjectmatter that he is teaching but boys and girls. He must sacrifice himself because it means the inspiration to boys and girls.

In order to be friendly with his pupils, he must be happy, he must smile. Regardless of his salary, he can afford it; smiles cost nothing. But no investment pays more in winning a pupil for a friend, than a smile. Impress on your mind that your success depends on winning your students as friends. Courtesy and cheerfulness are legal tender in any clime. When a cheerful teacher comes into the room his arrival has the same effect as the lighting of another candle around the hospitable board. He brings a burst of sunshiny weather into the room regardless of the weather outside. The students at once feel the invigorating ozone of cheerfulness in the air. Cheerfulness is contagious. No one can look a good natured teacher in the face and hang on to a fit of bad humor.

Cheerfulness is a habit and like all habits can be acquired. Get the habit, but this is not possible if you let petty troubles worry you.

The smile that wins, that is felt, and has a real effect in helping you along in the world is based upon an optimistic and philosophical outlook upon life which rests on love for your fellowman.

To develop friendship we teachers must have patience and sympathy, make the student feel that we are interested in his joys and his sorrows, be ready at all times to listen to him relate incidents of his loved ones at home. We soon gain his confidence. He knows we care about him if we show our interest in what he tells. Once we establish a human contact with a pupil, we have laid a firm foundation upon which to build, because we have established in him a readiness to attend to what we try to teach him in books and a willingness to work untiringly over even the hardest tasks.

The pupil studies best, recites best, and learns best under the teacher he likes. To make friends with our pupils we must remember that each pupil has a personality, that each one is different from every other child in the community. Be careful not to scold a pupil when he makes a mistake, but guide him and help him to correct his mistakes. Help him toward success, because nothing succeeds in life like success, and no child is lazy who succeeds; therefore, we must see that the task assigned is not too hard.

See the amusing incidents as they occur and enjoy them with your children. There is no trait that makes a greater appeal to older children than a sense of humor—cultivate it.

Read the funny page in your newspaper, make it a practise to tell about the funny incidents of the day. Urge your children to tell the funny things that have happened. Make collections of funny stories. Learn to tell a funny story yourself. Practise on a few until you have developed confidence. Do not tell a funny story merely to distract the children, but to stimulate and interest them in their work.

Oftentimes children laugh too much in the classroom. It is then time to check up, for children often laugh at mistakes. If you remark how stupid a child is when he makes a mistake, you are practically saying "Children laugh, laugh, laugh." But what about the child that is being laughed at? What about his confidence and comfort the next time he attempts a recitation? He at once feels that he is inferior. This child is really tortured. At all times guard against allowing amusement at a child's mistakes. Remember the Golden Rule, "As ye would that men should do to you."

Humor must be good humor. Imperial courts of the Old World, where fates of Empires were determined, had their well-paid jesters who performed a service just as essential as the advice of judges and diplomats. No circus intended to portray the spectacular in life can be made sufficiently elaborate to be a complete success unless it carries a full quota of excellent clowns. The very stress of life demands occasional selfforgetfulness in order that we may return to our common selves and problems with fresh views and new visions. Thus the teacher whose sense of humor rests on broad foundations will never be laughed at unkindly by his pupils, but will increase his authority and dignity, by recognizing this wholesome element of a well-rounded character.

A sense of humor must be regarded as a savoring in life, a characteristic signifying richness of personality, a force casting a benign influence over the lives of the boys and girls we teach.

A teacher who truly loves his pupils, is interesting and sympathetic, is always cheerful, will develop an everlasting friendship which will bring out the best in the child. He will have the ability to get the pupil's point of view and will find time for personal participation in his interests and life. Each pupil has his personal problems, ambitions, and needs. Personal interest wins confidence. It bridges the gulf between the "you" and the "I" with the "we." The best moral results are attained through companionship. This is where the most impressive moral lessons are taught. The vision of the teacher is caught, rather than taught. It is what the teacher is that fashions the lives, shapes the character, and determines the ideals of the children. A real teacher, like the Great Teacher, by precept and example strives to guide the children so that they "may have life and have it more abundantly." In the end this teacher truly loses himself.

A teacher asked his pupils to prepare a poem or thought on friendship. In closing I would like to tell you the result just to show you how the child caught his vision.

There are many kinds of friendship
As many kinds of light,
And every kind of friendship
Is a glory in the night.

There is a friendship that stirs the heart,
There is a friendship that gives us rest,
But the friendship that leads life upward
Is the noblest and the best.

FRIENDLINESS IN TEACHER-SUPERINTENDENT RELATIONSHIPS

MRS. SUSAN M. DORSEY, SUPERINTENDENT EMERITUS, LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

The recent growth of the social concept in public education indicates an awakening to the real significance of the schools in a land such as ours and to what should be the first function of education in any land, namely, the increasing of the wellbeing of all.

Not for themselves alone are youth in this day equipped with the tools of learning and enriched with the choice offerings of curriculums that are weighted with the knowledge of the ages, but each for the betterment of all is made the recipient of the best yet evolved. The world is friendly—if not yet altogether friendly, has its face firmly set in that direction; the only education worthy to be fostered in such a world is one that contributes to living well the cooperative life, whatever other result may come from instruction.

The schools are adjusting their offerings more perfectly than ever before to this new interpretation of their function. They have expressed themselves in what amounts to a creed, saying, "We must educate for health, the health of the group and the individual; we must educate for the business and industry of life, so that a living may be had by all and existence be robbed of the pains of uncertainty; we must educate for the larger life of the community, so that youth shall know their part in the civic program and be ready for social service; we must educate for the home, so that it, too, may become a school of the humanities; we must educate for the highest issues of life, those that enlarge human nature by allying it to the great principles of noble living that have brought us thus far in civilization and will still lead us on." You may call this last "ethics" or what you will; at any rate, it is good citizenship. In all these objectives which the schools have adopted as their creed, there is nothing selfish or futile, but a frank recognition of their responsibility so to educate youth that they shall be equipped to live successfully as social beings.

To attain such an ideal, that which is taught must have a social content and be taught through activities and under procedures that constitute a social environment and include the entire personnel of the system, even the superintendent and board of education.

I still linger on this general aspect of my subject, education for social living, because I am sure we do not ourselves see clearly the possibilities for a larger reach in the subjects taught, and their attendant activities; we do not see their actual and possible contributions to the cooperative, friendly life. Let me give just one illustration. The very general introduction of the hot lunch into the public schools has a social bearing, or may have, not often followed to its ultimate issues. As a safety measure, it lessens the risks of school children, inasmuch as it relieves the day of two exposures to traffic dangers by cutting out two street trips; as a health measure, it permits the guidance of diet in a wholesome way; as a social service measure, it relieves the overburdened mother, who is perhaps forced to earn the living for the family outside of the home; as an educational measure, quite apart from the practical experience it affords girls in the home economics classes, it makes possible the inculcation of habits of good breeding and gentility. I know of one school in a foreign district where the simple details of mannerly behavior are covered in the period of the school lunch in so kindly, so educative a way, with no unseemly word ever uttered, as to affect the mannerly living of the whole community.

Work out for yourselves the social implications of a single subject as now taught, or of the school playground, the school clinic, or of the varied clubs so prevalent, especially in the junior high school, and you will find that the tendencies are to recognize the function of public education as primarily that of promoting and interpreting experiences that prepare for the cooperative, friendly group-life. Surely the superintendent, who is to engineer this great project of education, must be himself the finest exemplar of the friendly spirit.

My part on this program is to interpret the friendly aspect of the relationships between superintendent and teachers. These relationships are, first of all, *professional*, for without the school there would be neither teacher nor superintendent and no profession of teaching. The friendliness between teachers and superintendent will therefore have its legitimate basis in a common interest in their professional work, which is their particular type of cooperative undertaking.

A factitious attempt at friendliness that does not grow naturally out of the normal professional relationship will be found insincere and shallow, and will soon become embarrassing, ending in disillusion and unhappiness.

An attempt at friendliness that has in the mind of either teacher or superintendent any ulterior motive, a pretense of interest on the part of a teacher because he expects to profit thereby in ease of assignment or in early promotion; a pretense of friendship for his teachers on the part of a superintendent who hopes to use their solidarity as a backing for some pet project or for his own advancement—all this is an ugly sham, hateful to those who recognize that the relationships between superintendent and teachers should grow out of a common professional interest, and that the only appropriate friendship is that which contributes to the success of their common enterprise.

In passing, it may not be amiss to call attention to the fact that for a superintendent to be anything but cooperative and friendly with teachers is incongruous, because the teacher long antedated the superintendent; that in fact the superintendent was ordained for the one purpose of aiding the teacher by relieving him of various details not of an instructional character, so that he might the more completely devote himself to the real business of teaching.

By what right, then, may any superintendent fail in his specific task of helpfulness to the teacher? How can he perform that task if his attitude toward those he is set to help is one of indifference or that of the autocrat—

attitudes which are bound to create on the part of the teacher reciprocal indifference, dislike, passive resistance, or active opposition?

How may a superintendent show a friendly spirit? Knowing that it is his business to clear the way for the teachers' work, he should take a genuine interest in seeing that no teacher's assignment is in itself too taxing, making demands on him that are impossible.

He should secure an environment for the teacher that will in itself conduce to the success of his work; light and air, and a fair degree of quiet and freedom from interruptions are essential. The cruel jabbing of the senses in our cities, with indescribable noises, with blinding glare, and with vicious odors, is as harmful to teachers as to children. I have known a teacher to face the light constantly from a slit of a window perched at the rear of the room. Care had been taken to secure proper lighting for the children's desks, but the teacher did not count. It is a friendly thing for a superintendent to observe conditions as he moves about from school to school, to note whether teachers are comfortably environed. I have known essential supplies to be delivered two weeks after the teacher's stock was exhausted. There is no finer evidence of friendship for teachers than the correction by a superintendent of such abuses. In a word, a sincere and friendly interest on the part of a superintendent in his teachers may be shown in efforts to mitigate all manner of disturbing nuisances that prevent accomplishment and harry the spirit.

A second indication of the right sort of friendship is evidenced in the help given to teachers in their efforts to improve their understanding of the subjects to be taught and to master new and better ways of teaching. In towns and the smaller cities the superintendent himself must be in large measure the inspiration, the interpreter, and the instructor of his own teachers; in larger cities the superintendent has, of course, the assistance of supervisors; but he also has the problem of guiding the work of supervisors, so that it shall not become a perfunctory performance, a mere critic-teacher exercise, a cold, heartless evaluation of instruction with small effort made toward the illumination of a subject to be taught and the best ways of teaching. Whether the superintendent himself must bring to teachers the help they need in learning how to enliven instruction, adapt education to the community, and supplement instruction with appropriate activities or whether he must direct the work of supervisors to that end, there is no finer opportunity for the cultivation of friendly relations between superintendent and teachers than in the giving by the superintendent of actual help along the lines of immediate work.

A friendly superintendent will encourage his teachers to improve themselves, to enlarge their personality through further study. Never was there more need for teachers to extend the bounds of their own scholarly attainments, for the great accessions of knowledge in the last few years exceed in volume anything the world has ever experienced; it is a time when the solid earth is found to be electrical energy and when infinity itself encircling the heavens seems to have been discovered by man; when applied science resuscitates human life; when economics devises a world bank; and when the voice of a king, even while he speaks, encircles the globe. Teachers must know, and superintendents in a spirit of friendly interest should magnify their responsibility for seeing that no teacher with aspirations to learn is left without the means for improvement so far as guidance can be proffered and the resources of the system permit. Teachers would many times avail themselves of extension courses, lectures, and varied cultural opportunities if a little effort were taken to secure these helps for them, or if they knew what was surely worthwhile. Sometimes the reading of a single book on the suggestion of the superintendent may serve to enlarge the outlook and vivify school experiences, and integrate the whole system.

A convincing evidence of a friendly spirit based on the recognition of teacher-ability is some kind of an arrangement by which representatives from all the teacher-groups meet with the superintendent at stated times to discuss school problems. The idea that teachers are inadequate to advise on matters even of administration is, or ought to be, antiquated. It overlooks the fact that once the teacher constituted the entire staff, teacher, administrator, and all. Nothing conduces to the cooperative spirit more surely than an implied demand on the part of the superintendent that all school problems should be solved in the light of contributions from the entire school group as they counsel together. These contacts in the superintendent's advisory council are of all I know the most conducive to general understanding and a spirit of goodwill.

A friendly spirit will lead the superintendent to open the way, when possible, for teachers to attend great meetings, the national gatherings of their own groups and such conferences as that held in Geneva during the last summer; a friendly spirit will lead the superintendent to stay at home himself on occasion and suggest to the board of education the sending of an other when transportation funds are difficult to acquire.

It is an evidence of a friendly spirit for the superintendent to show an interest in questions of salary, tenure, and retirement, and all those matters that make for the betterment of teacher-service. These are delicate questions. A superintendent must not be expected to array himself in controversial contests against the board of education; the aggressive attitude of some teacher-groups who count as their enemy that superintendent who does not harry his board constantly for teacher-benefits is most certainly to be deprecated. After all, the superintendent does not make contracts with teachers: that is the responsibility of the board, and those who employ must in the last analysis determine the question of possible compensation; the superintendent may help greatly, however, through emphasizing the increasing demands on teachers, which require more years of preparation and consequently involve more expense. He may in various ways, without even seeming to do so, magnify teacher-service, which of itself suggests adequate compensation. Superintendents are constantly beset with experiences which tend to make them sensitive to costs, and no single item of cost mounts so rapidly as teacher-salaries, which always bulk large in the total of school expenditures. In any event, a sincere interest in all these matters that seriously affect the wellbeing and power of accomplishment of teachers will lead the superintendent to keep informed and have an opinion of conditions based on knowledge in case his opinion is needed in the determining of issues of salary, tenure, retirement, sabbatical year, sick leave, and the like. To hold himself aloof from matters that vitally affect the health, happiness, and success of teachers is not an indication of a friendly attitude.

In a large teacher-group there are many occurrences of joy, of sorrow, that call for some notice on the part of the superintendent; there are exceptional cases of endeavor and achievement. A teacher's poem or article is accepted by a magazine of reputation, a prize won for the best development of some subject, for a work of art or a musical composition—all these are opportunities for a friendly recognition by the superintendent of a teacher's contribution to the good reputation of the system. They afford admirable opportunities for the evincing on the part of a superintendent of a human interest and for the enlarging of the circle of his friendly acquaintance. These are occasions when the solidarity of the group may be strengthened in a delightful way.

The most kindly-disposed superintendent cannot of himself achieve the friendly spirit in school relationships; teachers must do their part; they need to adopt approvingly the social concept of education and stand ready to make their contribution in reciprocal helpfulness toward the common undertaking, even though it require an occasional change of attitude and constant readjustments of instruction, activities, and school relationships. Inflexibility and growth cannot coexist; education is expanding; teachers and superintendents alike will do well to be observant, flexible of mind, and ready to make adaptations in order to meet the needs of a growing civilization that must have a friendly world for its ultimate realization.

Perhaps it is not too much to say that on public education rests the supreme responsibility of making and keeping the world friendly. To accomplish that, education must provide instruction and varied experiences in social living to a far greater degree than at present, and a friendly spirit must pervade all school relationships.

FRIENDLINESS IN RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS

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It is a great privilege to address the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, and to address you on this particular topic—friendly relations between public and parochial schools. The very fact that you have selected such a subject is in itself a happy omen of increasing friendly relations between these two great systems of education. I approach the question, therefore, with optimism, even though that optimism be mixed with some diffidence as to my ability to suggest anything worthwhile to men of such wide experience in the actual work.

Since you have asked me to speak, I shall do my best. If I merely voice ideas and conclusions already familiar to you, there may be some good accomplished by collecting these vocally in this meeting. Also, if I speak only of what superintendents of public schools can do to increase friendly relations between their own and the parochial schools, it is not because I think this a purely one-sided affair, but only because I am addressing you rather than representatives of the parochial schools.

While what I say may have special reference to Catholic schools, it will apply in large measure to Lutheran, Episcopalian, Jewish parochial schools, and in fact to all private schools. It is a mistake to divide schools in this country merely into Catholic and public. Indeed, private schools that are not Catholic, while not as compact a system as the Catholic parochial schools, are in the aggregate a more important factor in the educational situation.

With these preliminary considerations in mind, I should say that the first thing for anyone to do, who wishes to bring about friendlier relations between public and parochial schools, is to know the background from which the schools of today grew. He ought to know something, too, of what is happening educationally in other countries. Knowledge and understanding are the fundamental bases of sympathy, and sympathy is necessary for friendliness. History and travel—even travel by proxy—are the most effective enemies of narrowness. Provincial cocksureness vanishes under their broadening influence.

From the historical side, all schools in the original British colonies taught religion. It was not until the eighteen thirties that a strong movement was under way to eliminate the teaching of religion from the state schools. Consequently, the men who fought the Revolution, who formed this country, and guided it through its critical years were all educated in schools where religious teaching was an integral part of the curriculum. One must be very lacking in historical perspective, therefore, to speak of religious schools as being un-American.

Furthermore, the fundamental American attitude is to be suspicious of government monopolies. We want to keep open the avenues of private initiative. Human nature being what it is, we realize that competition is necessary for efficiency. When men do not have to exert themselves because there is a monopoly, they tend to rest on their oars. This is true in the educational world as well as in the commercial. Of course, I do not say that it is un-American for the state to enter the educational field. I do maintain that it would be un-American for the state by its supreme legislative authority to crush out all other schools, to eliminate competition, to create for itself an educational monopoly. The result would be as disastrous and inefficient as our flyer in government ownership of railroads and ships.

Moreover, the United States and France are the only great powers where religion is completely banished from state-supported schools. Canada, England, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, all provide in some way for the teaching of religion in schools completely state or receiving grants from public taxes.

So far from the complete elimination of religion from state schools commending itself to the wisdom of the modern world, I should say that just the opposite is the case. Holland tried something very similar to our present system of nonreligious public schools, and recently abandoned it to go back to public schools that are also religious. And while in this country we shall probably never have the Ontario, or English, or German system, the trend seems to me to be distinctively in the direction of finding some way by which children attending public schools may receive some religious instruction. Just as we passed out of the first phase of education in this country, when all schools taught religion, into a second phase when religion was completely eliminated from state schools, so now we are passing into a third phase when religion and education will once more in some way be united.

With this historical and worldwide perspective, one can approach with more sympathy and understanding the existence of a great parochial (or private) school system. Catholics have paid their taxes to support public schools. The states where Catholics are strongest are among the foremost in generous expenditure for public education. But because Catholics look upon religion as the most valuable thing in life, and look upon education as one of the most important formative factors for all phases of life, including the religious, they are not satisfied with the complete elimination of religion from the week-day school. To Catholics (and to many other religious folk) education is a unit, and religion should permeate the whole. It is like the leaven that was hidden in three measures of meal—which we may take to symbolize the three R's—that leavened the whole mass.

There is an indirect teaching as well as direct, and sometimes the indirect results are more important than the direct. Atmosphere counts for a great deal. If religion is to be lived seven days a week, then religious edution should not be put in a thought-tight compartment for six days, and only brought out for half an hour with Sunday clothes. Religious pictures, symbols, and worship are all part of a well-rounded education. A class in arithmetic with a crucifix on the wall is subtly different from a class in an absolutely bare room.

As a consequence of this attitude towards education and towards eternal verities, Catholics have not only paid their state taxes, but at enormous expense they have built and are supporting schools of their own accommodating over two million children. These Catholic schools are saving the state at least a hundred million dollars a year in running expenses, to say nothing of the interest on the cost of land, building, and equipment. So far from being a danger to the public schools, they are a decided advantage. You superintendents find it difficult enough to meet the needs of education for the children you have. Some of you in strongly Catholic cities would be crippled if next September all Catholic schools closed and you had to make provision for all the Catholic children. You would either have to get additional funds—difficult enough from your experience—or spread the funds you have thinner.

But the fact that Catholics are thus generously taxing themselves for the education of about half their children, should not make anyone lose sight of the fundamental fact that the public schools belong to Catholics just as they belong to all other citizens. Half of our children are in the public schools, but these schools would belong to us if none of our children were in them. An understanding of that point is essential for friendly relations between public and parochial schools. And one of the first gestures a superintendent of public schools should make is to show that as far as he is concerned the schools under him are really *public* schools, belonging to the whole public.

You will pardon me, I hope, if I advert to three ways in which a different impression is sometimes given. One is by reading a Protestant translation of the Bible, or by reading portions that are not accepted by Jews. There have been numerous controversies between Catholic teachers and superintendents, or schoolboards, when the Catholic used a Catholic translation. If the schools are public, rather than Protestant, why should there be an insistence upon reading an official Protestant translation?

Second, to hold commencement exercises in a Protestant church does not sit well with Catholics. Some of you may think that Catholics are hypersensitive in this, but when you are trying to cultivate friendly relations with parochial schools, you must take this sensitiveness into consideration. Akin to this practise of having commencements of public schools, or baccalaureate sermons, in Protestant churches, is always having Protestants to speak at the school assemblies. It gives the impression of Protestant proprietorship.

A third way, more important than the other two, in which the tax-supported schools sometimes cease to be *public* schools is by restricting the teachers to a particular religious group. Our Catholic young people have the same right to teach in the public schools that our children have to attend them. Or rather, properly qualified Catholics have the same right to teach in the public schools that any citizens have. No Catholic should be refused appointment in a public school because he is a Catholic.

Of course I know that the stories of rejected teachers have to be discounted. Some candidates who are refused appointment for perfectly legitimate reasons find it easier for their self-love to pose as religious martyrs than to face their own shortcomings. But we all know that making due allowance for mistakes and exaggerations, there are some places where a Catholic cannot be elected as a teacher.

Now, it seems to me that the preliminary step to friendly relations between parochial (or private) and public schools is that the superintendents should indicate as clearly as possible that they are straight shooters. Justice first, then charity. I do not know any more important point for absolute justice than this question of teacher appointments. Like Caesar's wife, you must be above suspicion. Do not think that I am being officious when I say that one thing which causes suspicion is to ask the applicant to state his religion. I am inclined to think that it would be best to eliminate this question from your forms.

As an illustration of the sort of attitude no superintendent should have, I shall read you a letter that was sent out by the National Catholic Welfare Conference News Service, and published widely in Catholic papers. It is supposed to have been written by the principal of a public school.

> You did not answer one of my questions satisfactorily. I was anxious to know whether you were a Protestant or a Catholic. If you belong to the Protestant religion, report immediately and send me a wire letting me know when you will arrive so that I can make arrangements accordingly. If you are a Catholic, please wire me at my expense. A contract will be awarded you upon your arrival under the first condition only.

However, what is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander. There are a few places—not nearly as many as on the other side—where only a Catholic will be employed in the public schools. If I were addressing a Catholic audience I should emphasize this fact. As long as Protestants can point to such conduct on the part of Catholics, a certain color of excuse is given for their more widespread discrimination. Merely as a question of expediency, Catholics are penny wise and pound foolish. For taking the country as a whole, they lose much more than they gain.

Having done what you can to establish a reputation for absolute fairness, try to cultivate personal relations with the priest or priests concerned with the parochial schools. In a small town, you can know all the priests; in a big city meet the key men. If you have a mutual friend who will invite you both to dinner at his house or his club, that is a fine way to get acquainted. Often a man who has been well fed and is relaxing in an easy chair smoking will receive sympathetically a proposition he would have turned down at eleven in the morning or four in the afternoon. I am a great believer in personal contacts, and in choosing one's own terrain for a campaign.

Benjamin Franklin said that one of the best ways to win over a somewhat antagonistic man is to ask him to do you a favor. The advice is probably based on the idea that it is more blessed to give than to receive. The giver feels a certain superiority to the recipient, and a gentle glow of satisfaction suffuses him. If you can choose the favor to ask with all the tact of Franklin, and carry it through with the same graciousness, this is no doubt a good way to win over a somewhat antagonistic priest.

Carrying out further the idea that the public schools belong to the whole people, arrangements have been made in some places for children from the parochial schools to get their manual training, domestic science, or some other neutral subjects in the public schools. Contacts, naturally, are immediately established in this way.

In some places, too, the same health service provided for the public schools is extended to the parochial schools. These Catholic families are paying taxes to support the health service and their children belong to the state, and it is to the state's interest that they should be healthy just as well as the public school children. The strongest objection to this extension of the health service is the expense. That only goes to prove very concretely how difficult it would be for the State to supply the place of the parochial schools. If it is a burden to furnish just one portion of the educational services to parochial school children, how much more of a burden it would be to supply everything.

Anything that looks at all children as being equally important, and the public and parochial schools as both serving the whole state by educating citizens, makes for friendly relations. If a Rotary Club, for instance, gives a loving cup for the best basketball team, let the parochial schools be in the league. If the chamber of commerce offers a prize for the best essay on the beauties of Tompkinville, let the parochial school children participate, and perhaps ask the priest to be one of the judges.

When there is a parade on George Washington's birthday, or a common meeting Thanksgiving Day, try to get the parochial school children to take part. Don't be discouraged at one or two failures. Sometimes for one reason or another a priest is somewhat standoffish. Perhaps his attitude is a rather widespread human weakness to generalize the particular. A priest knows of a bigoted superintendent, or has heard of one, and he concludes that all superintendents are like that. It is the converse of Protestants knowing one unworthy priest and attributing these qualities to all. Patience, tact, prudence will be required to overcome previous prejudices. Maybe if you knew all the priest's experiences you would understand his present state of mind. Anyhow, it is part of your job in bringing about friendly relations to show that you are square and above board.

There have been priests who served on public schoolboards, even though they had parochial schools of their own. It may be possible to multiply such instances. In many places the priest would be a very valuable member. Not only would his presence eliminate friction and suspicion on the part of Catholics, but he would bring wise counsel to the problems of the board. To have a Catholic priest on the board would be another gesture showing that the public schools belong to all.

For the board of trustees of the School of Religion at the University of Iowa, full equality was recognized between the three great religious groups, Catholic, Jewish, Protestant. This equality created a confidence in the School that nothing else could have done. It was a splendid move. While I do not advocate a similar equal division of schoolboards between Catholics Jews, and Protestants, I do think it would make towards better feelings if minorities were not forced to feel hopelessly out of it. One of the best ways to bring about friendly relations between any two groups is to have them perform a common task. If you get Catholics into the actual running of the public schools, they will understand you better and you will understand them better. Then they will react upon the Catholics conducting parochial schools.

Years ago in his speech at the Cotton Exposition in Georgia, one of the greatest educators this country has ever produced, Booker T. Washington, used such a graphic illustration of the relations between white and colored that I may be pardoned for taking it over to express the relations between public and private or parochial schools. In all things religious we can be as separate as the fingers of a man's outstretched hand; but there are many other ways, some of which I have indicated, where we can be as united as a man's clenched fist. It is for all of us, according to our opportunities, to seek out and cultivate these ways of union. Christian charity, American patriotism demand that there should be understanding, sympathy, and good fellowship between public and parochial schools.

FRIENDLINESS IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

PAUL C. STETSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DAYTON, OHIO

The friendliness which should exist between the public schools and the community which they serve comes, in general, from three sources: First, from the type of contacts which the public has with the schools; second, from the confidence which the public has in the integrity and efficiency of the officials; and third, from the kind of information about the system which the public receives.

In general the contacts which the patrons have with their system are made with the teachers whom they visit relative to the progress of their children, with the principals of the buildings whom they interview, from attendance at parent-teacher meetings, and from visits to the central office. The necessity of providing that, insofar as is possible, the patrons shall find these contacts pleasant and satisfactory cannot be overemphasized.

Industry and business long ago discovered that it was very profitable for them to have pleasant relationships with their public. Our large department stores have sensed the commercial advantages to be gained through a closer contact with customers. The great public utilities have abandoned the aloof and contemptuous attitude so characteristic of such concerns twenty-five years ago, and are now among our most active bidders for public support and confidence. Even banks, the last stronghold of conservatism, have inaugurated publicity policies which would have been unthinkable years ago. The public is no longer regarded by industrial and commercial concerns as a necessary evil to be endured, but rather as a group which must be flattered and pleased. "The customer is always right" has become a national slogan. Nearly all of our great industrial and commercial organizations have extensive personnel departments, which take great pains to teach their employees the necessity and the advantages of courteous and friendly relationships with their public.

One of the best examples of this is found in the training given to telephone operators. A great deal of money is spent by the officers of the telephone companies in training in courtesy, no matter how great the provocation, not only of their operators, but of all employees who have contacts with the public. They have turned to commercial advantage the injunction that "a soft answer turneth away wrath."

If our great industrial concerns have adopted this attitude, it is even more important that our public schools, which owe their very existence to the public, shall do so. This means that we shall give all requests courteous consideration, that we shall use tact in handling difficult situations, and that we shall have consideration for the natural interests and concern of parents in the welfare of their children.

Investments of time, ingenuity, and money on the part of the superintendent and his staff in making it easy and pleasant for the patrons to have contacts with the schools, will bring a rich return in friendliness and cooperation.

Another means of effecting friendliness is in so conducting the schools that the community will have confidence in the officers in charge. The greatest source of confidence in a school system comes from a belief in its efficiency. Nothing can be substituted for this. The schools must do the work for which they are organized in a thorough, conscientious, and reliable manner. No amount of personal publicity, of "feature" stories, or of strange and unusual experiments can take the place of hard, effective, and well-directed work on the part of each member of the school organization. The day of the promoter in education, if it were ever here, has gone. Educational "get-rich-quick Wallingfords" merit and receive no more of public confidence than did the likable rogue of the story. Recently the president of the largest concern of its kind in the world was asked, "What do you think brings to your company the confidence of the public?" He replied, "A thoroughly reliable and efficient organization. That is first always."

Confidence comes from a public which is convinced that the officials deal fairly with it. Nothing destroys confidence more quickly than the feeling that special privileges are granted because of political pressure, or for social recognition, or upon some other basis than merit. No one thing arouses more resentment than the knowledge that requests which are denied some are granted others. All of us have had experience which shows that the public responds quickly to decisions if they have been carefully and fairly made. Fair dealing is not only good ethics—it is good business and sound school administration.

Another source of confidence in a school system, paradoxical as it may seem, arises from the knowledge that decisions on policies of major importance which have been given careful, thoughtful, and scientific consideration will be adhered to.

Belief in the efficiency of a school system is never impaired, strange as it may seem, when the officers insist on carrying out policies which may be opposed by small, but very articulate minorities.

We could give many examples of school officials and board of education members who have announced unpopular policies, and who have steadfastly refused to change their decisions although subjected to much abuse and unfavorable publicity. Occasions arise frequently which demand an aggressive and firm stand against what, on the surface, may seem to be considerable oppostion. Such a stand, when based on a sound and scientific investigation, inevitably results in reliance on the part of the people in the judgment and integrity of the school officers.

Temporizing, indecisiveness, and changing established policies for political reasons or because of temporary opposition are the surest ways to lose the confidence of the people.

A third source of friendliness between the public and its schools is a department of public relations. No system is too small, nor is any too large, to have such a department whose primary function is to supply reliable, unbiased, impersonal, and factual information about the schools.

A recent and as yet unpublished study by H. S. Ganders, made for the Committee on School Publicity of the Cincinnati Schoolmasters' Club, indicates that many cities of the country are alive to the possibilities inherent in a department of public relations.

Of the cities studied, Mr. Ganders found that eleven have definitely established a policy of delegating to some member of the staff the duty of supplying proper information concerning the activities of the schools. In many instances, particularly in the smaller cities, this person gives only part time to this work. In addition to his function as contact man with the newspapers, such an officer has charge, in many cities, of the issuing of annual reports and monographs. Mr. Ganders further found that sixteen of the cities studied issue "house organs" which give a type of information concerning the schools the newspapers ordinarily do not use. In the majority of cases such "house organs" are issued monthly and are paid for entirely by the board of education.

Of the cities reporting, eleven felt that it was good policy to have a continuous rather than an intermittent program of school publicity. This questionnaire, necessarily limited in scope, shows clearly that the policy of establishing a department of public relations is one which is receiving critical attention.

The details of the relations between such a department and the newspapers are too many to be given here. Suffice it to say that it makes it possible for the superintendent to have invaluable contacts with the newspapers of his city.

According to Elizabeth Kennedy, of Dayton, in a report entitled *The Relation of the Principal to the School Publicity Program,* prepared for Teachers College, Columbia University, there are four simple but important rules which, if followed, insure the cooperation of the newspapers of any city. They are—

First, the department shall never, under any circumstances, be used to further the personal ends of any member of the school staff or of members of the board of education.

Second, news shall never be censored. This is so fundamental as to need no further comment.

Third, the department must be impartial in its dealings with the newspapers.

Fourth, this department furnishes only unusual items of news which may or may not be of current interest. The reporters still continue their practise of interviewing the superintendent or members of his staff in regard to news of current interest.

In addition to cooperating with the newspapers the department of public relations has charge of the issuing of all reports. These reports are too technical to be of value to the average reader of a newspaper. This department makes these reports readable and interesting.

The ordinary report of the superintendent of schools, showing the business of the board of education during any particular year, is usually such dull reading that it is seldom looked over even by members of his own staff. In the words of Professor Briggs, it is carefully read only by the proofreader, and not always by him.

In a very interesting book entitled *Public School Relations,* Professor A. B. Moehlman says that the annual report serves two purposes: First, to record certain important events for historical purposes, and second, to inform the public and the members of the board of education what has been accomplished by the schools during the year just closed.

The first purpose of the superintendent's report has been, as a rule, creditably performed. The information is usually accurate and accessible. As a means of informing the public of the progress of the schools, however, it leaves much to be desired.

An examination of the publications which come from many of our commercial houses shows that they have sensed the importance of having attractive, readable, and well-illustrated booklets. It is worthy of more than passing notice to observe that any one of a half-dozen systems which have adopted a plan of giving the public graphic and well-illustrated descriptions of their work have very cordial and helpful relations with the public. Buffalo, Detroit, Rochester, Denver, and Cleveland are cases in point.

Smaller systems than these can and do make intelligent and successful efforts to supply the public with interesting and accurate information. A school scandal, like a church fight, will always gain headlines. It is news of the first water. Probably no system can hope always to escape it. But the effect of such stories on public opinion is to some extent offset if they have had and continue to receive accurate and readable accounts of legitimate school activities.

A department of public relations, whether it be in a system so small that the superintendent is the department, or in a city large enough to have its own organization, is a certain, sure, legitimate, and necessary source of friendliness. Accurate, well-edited, reliable, and continuous information about a school system is a bulwark in time of need and a staunch friend in time of trouble.

These, then, are some of the sources of friendliness between a school system and the public: Courteous, tactful, and considerate relationships; confidence of the community in the efficiency of the schools, in the impartiality of its officials, and in the policies of the board of education; and a department of public relations which furnishes a constant and reliable supply of impersonal, accurate, worthwhile, and interesting information about the schools.

MODERN POLITICS

HONORABLE RUTH BRYAN OWEN, MEMBER OF CONGRESS FROM THE FOURTH CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICT OF FLORIDA

I wish that there was a way in which I could express my appreciation for that gracious welcome and the appreciation I feel for the privilege of addressing you this evening. I wish that there was some formal gesture by which I could express all that I feel in my heart. I heard not long ago the story of an earthquake which occurred in a California city during a meeting of the civic commissioners. It was recorded that when the earthquake shook the building, the commissioners had to rush out for safety. They were puzzled about the way to record it in the minutes. They hesitated to record that they had stopped their meeting because of an earthquake. Finally the secretary devised a solution. He recorded the incident in this way: "On motion of the city hall, the meeting adjourned."

I wish there was a formal motion by which I could express the sense of the privilege which I feel it to be to speak for a few moments this evening on a subject which is very near to my heart.

A few years ago when I was asked to speak to a group of high-school children on Washington's birthday, I suddenly realized what a difficult thing it is to carry the mind of modern young people understandingly back across the years. I realized that if I was to speak to these students in any way that would be memorable about the father of our country, I would have to portray the time of the founding of our Republic in some way that would seem close and personal to them, and I think it is a difficult thing to look understandingly back across a number of years. As I puzzled over the way in which I could translate the founding of our government into terms which would seem intimate to modern youth, I found myself realizing how difficult it might be to carry the imagination of modern young people back even as far as my own college days. I found myself remembering just how we used to look when I sang in the glee club in my university. I remember that my hatband and my waistband were just the same size at the time. I used one band interchangeably, and I was proud of it. Then I remember how interestingly we did our hair at the time. I remember we wore rats and we had the hair all brushed up over these rats and then we wore a sailor hat on top of the hair. The sailor hat had to be anchored down with long hat pins.

I realized that a picture of that group would be very difficult for modern students to view sympathetically, and yet if they could only look past those Gibson girl shirtwaists, they would see exactly the same joys and sorrows and exactly the same hopes and fears that they know, but it is so difficult for them to realize it.

I knew if I asked them to look back still another generation farther it would be even more difficult. A few years ago I saw a photograph of the debating society on which my father served when he was in college. You could tell when you looked at that photograph that those boys would be statesmen when they grew up. They were dressed like statesmen. They all wore long frock coats and they had their hands thrust in between the second and third button of their coats. There were only two girls in the group. One of them was Jane Addams of Hull House. I was so interested in the clothes those girls wore. You know I have thought sometimes our modern girls have missed the very best defense they have when their clothes are criticized. They only need to get out the old family album. Anyone who can look at the clothes of two generations ago and then be critical about the clothes today has lost his sense of humor completely.

I think the fact that we see the portrait of Washington so often on the postage stamps and in steel engravings has made him seem like a character who is compressed between the leaves of a history book. A few years ago when D. W. Griffith had made his film, "America," in which he tried to recreate some of the scenes of the Revolution, I talked to him about it. He told me how difficult it had been to find a man who looked enough like Washington to play that part. When he finally found this actor and gave him the part to play, he told me the man was so impressed with the fact that he was to play the part of the father of our country that he not only studied the histories, but he studied the old letters and the manuscripts, trying to live again the period.

They took this motion picture company into a snowstorm to make the scenes at Valley Forge. They had the American army with torn uniforms, some of the men with rags wrapped around their feet instead of shoes. They had to drag the cannon over the rough roads, and as the men struggled along, there was the trace of blood where they had trod. After the picture was filmed of the men at Valley Forge where Washington had to go amongst the soldiers to encourage them, to help them as they struggled through the storm, the director said, "It is time for Washington to kneel and pray for the success of his army." This actor knelt in the snow, but Mr. Griffith told me they had to stop the cameras and wait because his eyes were full of tears as he knelt there.

I have wished that modern students might have just that moment of insight which this motion picture actor had as he knelt in the snow, because he wasn't seeing then a chapter in history. He was living a time of human suffering and human sacrifice and was bridging the years with his imagination.

I think if the time of war is difficult to recreate with sympathetic understanding, perhaps the years just after are quite as difficult. I have always wished that there was a way in which we could see history with a bird's-eye view. I have always longed to look out over our continent and see just how the pioneers crossed it. I remember when I was a girl I was so sorry I was born too late to be a pioneer. I used to stand on the one spot outside Lincoln which never had been cut by a plow and I would try as I stood there to imagine how the covered wagons had wound out to the west. I tried to see the pioneers cutting their way through the forests to the north, and another line of pioneers crossing the desert to that lawless frontier on the southwest. A few years ago in a book I had a sense of that bird's-eye view for which I had always longed. I think those of you who read *Giants in the Earth* shared it with me. Do you remember when the four covered wagons were just starting out to the west and each wagon had a family in it and a cow tied behind it? They were ready to start for North Dakota and then one wagon had to stop for repairs. So the three began the journey. The last covered wagon was to start as soon as the repairs were completed. When the last family started on the journey, they could follow the tracks of the wagon wheels in the sod of the plains and the ashes of the camp fires and then there came a time when they couldn't see the trace of the wagon wheels, but they followed on, and then the food supply began to run low and fear settled down over the hearts of the parents. One night when they had made camp and the children were sleeping under the wagon and the mother lying beside them, the father started out to hunt by moonlight for the wagon tracks. As he went away from the wagon it seemed to grow smaller and smaller in that great open circle of the plains. When he had reached a little hill, he not only saw there the trace of a wagon wheel, but he saw a piece of dried meat which the other pioneers had dropped when they passed. He picked up the meat. There was food for his children. There was the track he could follow. I think I never in all literature enjoyed a meal as much as I enjoyed that meat. I was so relieved when they found it.

But there was that other scene which was less happy. When each of the families had built a sod house and tilled the first field, then they saw another covered wagon coming toward them across the plains. They came out to wonder who it could be. When the wagon neared the little settlement, they saw a man leading the horses. The children in the wagon looked hungry, and there was a woman tied with ropes to the wagon seat. Perhance asked the newcomer, "Where did you cross the Sioux River?"

He replied, "How should I know where we crossed the river? We had to hunt for days before we could find a place that was shallow enough to cross."

Perhance said, "You have had a hard time, haven't you?"

The man answered, "Yes, life is hard, and it has been harder since we lost our boy."

Then he told how one of the children had become ill. They tried to get help in the last village, but because they were Norwegian, the doctor couldn't understand them and they had to go on without much help. The father said, "One day the boy's life went out like a candle that is blown out by the wind."

Perhance said, "Have you brought him with you in the wagon?"

He said, "No, we had to leave him behind. His mother and I dug a grave for him in the shade of a rock and we have come on, but there are times when his mother tries to go back. It is hard to leave a child behind you that way."

I realized that wasn't the story of one covered wagon; it wasn't the story of one group of pioneers; it was a glimpse into the sacrifice of every frontier when a great continent is being broken to the use of man. It is difficult to look back understandingly. I think it is difficult for modern youth to bridge those years. One reason is the fact that now it all seems so finished. We are not very far now from any part of our country. We have our highways like ribbons of cement crossing and recrossing the continent. When we want music, we can turn on the radio. When we want light, we press a button.

I think sometimes the very type of patriotic speeches which the young people hear make it a little bit difficult to realize the place the citizen should occupy in his government. You know the type of patriotic speech that hangs the flag up, boasts about it a little bit, and doesn't suggest that there is anything left to do. Whenever I hear that sort of complacent patriotism, I think of the story I once heard of a school entertainment when the schoolboard were to be the guests. The children had learned their recitations. The teachers had decorated the schoolrooms and the great day arrived. One of the visitors was talking to the children. He said, "Children, why did your teacher hang this big flag on the wall of your schoolroom?"

One of the children said, "Please, sir, it's to hide the cracks we have in our plaster."

You know I think there is a certain sort of patriotism which finds it far easier to hang up the flag than to examine the plaster and see just where it needs reenforcing. I am glad there is a more intelligent patriotism and I am glad it is expressed in one of the songs our children sing—

"America! America! God mend thine every flaw,
Confirm thy soul in self-control, thy liberty in law!"

I remember once when in one phrase I saw the place which the individual should occupy in our own government, and that phrase was in a speech which Walter Hines Page delivered when he first came to London as our ambassador at the beginning of the war. He spoke to the Royal Scientific Society and used this expression: "If you are going to understand the government of my country, you will have to see it as my forefathers saw it; you will have to see the power of government placed equally in the hands of every citizen. Then if you see the government placed in the hands of every citizen, you see why in America we dare not let our public remain ignorant, and we dare not let any group become embittered because we have begun by giving them the power."

Then I realized that the work of building the Republic is not yet completed, for if our government is one in which power rests in the hands of every citizen, then we will not have completed our Republic until every citizen is bearing his share in government. If only fifty or sixty percent register and vote, we have only finished fifty or sixty percent of the Republic, and there is plenty of work left to do.

I believe that the youth of our country today, if it is only made plain that the very building of our Republic depends on the degree of patriotism shown by that generation, are ready to respond to that appeal. I am always reading something in the press about our young people, some article about the way the girls wear their hair, or the way they wear their eyebrows, or something else that disturbs the press. It seems so difficult for young people to please the newspapers. It probably always has been so, but I think it is well for us to remember that it was a young American who proved to be the best ambassador this country ever sent abroad, and I think Lindbergh is more characteristic of our youth today than the types that the newspapers criticize.

I so firmly believe that there is a service which youth can render to government that I am trying to bring to the young of my own district a sense of this vision that I see. We so often talk about public opinion as if it was a static thing, something that always remained the same, when every year thousands and thousands of young citizens are pouring into public opinion, and thousands and thousands every year are facing the sunrise of living. It has occurred to me that when the schools give a diploma which marks the close of school life for these young people, it would be appropriate to have the government make a gesture of welcome to these new citizens. I have had the "American's Creed," in which William Tyler Page has so finely described the attitude of the patriot, engraved on parchment, making something that looks a good deal like a diploma, and on this I have not only placed the "American's Creed," but the statement that "This is presented by your representative in Congress in recognition of your graduation and to welcome you to participation in the affairs of government." Every high-school graduate and every college graduate in my district is going to be welcomed into citizenship by the presentation of the "American's Creed."

Then I have been planning some citizenship contests in my eighteen counties. In every one of these counties in the high schools the boys and girls are to select by their vote the three boys and three girls in each school who have been the best young citizens, not the best scholars necessarily, but the most unselfish citizens, and then in each county the faculty or the schoolboard are to select from that number one boy and one girl to represent the county.

At Easter I am taking these thirty-six young people to Washington for a week's study of government. They will have shown that they know what it is to be a citizen of a school, and we will study together what it is to be a citizen of the Republic.

I remember the first time I ever saw a king drive along the streets of a European city in a gold coach. I thought, "How easy it is to understand this form of government. You can stand by the road and watch it go by. You can see it with your eyes, but a government which rests on your own shoulders, you have to see with your mind and your heart, and that is more difficult."

I want to take these thirty-six young people to make this pilgrimage to our nation's capital. I want to begin at the Congressional Library where the Declaration of Independence hangs in the original. Then we will walk in the footsteps of Washington at Mount Vernon. We will stand in front of the capital where the dome rises against the sky and we will see where in the one wing the Senate is in session and in the other, the House of Representatives.

We will go to the Supreme Court, because no one can fail to respect the dignity of law when they have seen our Supreme Court in session. We will go and meet the President, because I want these children to know that even the President of the United States has a word of welcome for the best young citizens in these counties. Then we will end our pilgrimage where I have ended the pilgrimage of more than a hundred Florida boys and girls this past year. We will go to Arlington and lay a wreath on the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier. I remember when I stood there this spring with forty-seven boys from Orlando, we could look past the marble tomb and see the city of Washington in the distance. We could just see the dome of the capitol and the white shaft of Washington's Monument. I said to the boys, "This represents more to us than the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier, the soldiers in the Revolution who died so that we could have the city of Washington and all it stands for, and all the soldiers through the years who were ready to lay down their lives so that we could keep it."

The boy who had the wreath stepped out and laid it on the Tomb and then he spoke from his own heart words which were unrehearsed but which were echoed in the hearts of all of us. He said, "In memory of those who gave their lives that we could live in peace."

Oh, there is so much that speaks to the heart of youth in our government. We hear a great deal about the need of defense in our country. I think any patriotic American wants us to have ships enough to defend our shores from enemies outside, but there are two ships we need inside the country. One is citizen*ship* and one is statesman*ship,* and we can build those ourselves.

I have an ambition which is so personal that I almost hesitate to state it, but I would like to have a time come when it would be said, "The best young citizens in the country come from the Fourth Congressional District in the State of Florida."

You know I think there is something a little touching about the way very young students feel that they can put everything right. Have you ever noticed if you give a boy a high-school diploma he can tell you just how to run the family? He can tell you just how to conduct the city government. He can point out the flaws in the federal government, and usually he is right. I would rather have the high-school students count the votes in some of our big cities than the men who count them. If you gave them the task of counting votes, you know how hard they would try to bring the right answer back to you. They would never be influenced by political considerations.

They have two qualities, energy and idealism. Those are qualities we need in government, but have you noticed when some of these young people have big ideas about setting the world in order, how their elders usually talk to them? Why I have heard their grownups say, "If you tried those ideas of yours they wouldn't work. Things have always been done this way; they always will be."

You know I would rather say, "We haven't made things perfect yet. You come and try to make them better and we will stand behind you while you do it, because we need your help."

I believe that if we can bring a sense of responsibility for government to our youth, we are not only giving them a wonderful interest, but I think we are doing a service to government. I think right there lies the answer to some of our great problems. If instead of chasing the adult malefactor around to punish him, we took good care that the next generation had the view we want them to have, I think we would save ourselves a lot of time and a lot of money. In the attitude of our youth lies the answer to a great many grave problems.

I believe we can show to youth that building a republic now is almost like building a cathedral was in the Middle Ages. One generation put in a foundation and then because it was so vast, years would pass as the walls rose, but those who began the cathedral were not the ones who saw it finished; it was their children or their children's children who would see the finished towers against the sky.

In the time of our forefathers a foundation of government was laid, and during the years the pioneers were building the walls higher, but it won't be until every citizen bears his share in the responsibility of government that the Republic will be completed, and now it is the privilege of those who see this vision to say to modern youth, "Godspeed in your task of helping to complete the Republic which our forefathers began for us in sacrifice."

MODERN BUSINESS LOOKS AT SECONDARY EDUCATION

FRANK B. JEWETT, VICEPRESIDENT, AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH COMPANY, PRESIDENT, BELL TELEPHONE LABORATORIES, NEW YORK, N. Y.

In presuming to address you on such a topic as "Modern Business Looks at Secondary Education," I realize, as you must, that no one man, however wise or however broad of experience, can possibly hope to summarize the attitude or feelings of business toward secondary education. Modern business is so vast, so varied, and so varying that there is obviously no simple point of view which could with safety be taken and used as a guide to assist you in the equally intricate maze of problems which inhere in the giving of secondary education.

Added to the other factors is the fact that at any given instant the point of view of even a single clearly defined portion of business is a composite thing likely to shift materially, at least in detail, within a relatively short time. Even if such a unit of business is sufficiently developed, coherent and education-conscious, as to have a point of view, that point of view will of necessity be the resultant of the points of view of the individuals who make up the unit, or at least it will be the resultant of the points of view of the leaders of those who make up the unit. It will be compounded in part of an element of selfinterest in the advancement of the unit insofar as advancement is thought to be affected by schemes of education. Tempering and modifying this element of selfinterest will be the individual points of view of those who make up that particular business concerning what is desirable in education. These points of view, themselves, are necessarily variable things, since they must embody human conclusions that result from personal education, personal experience, and the interest or lack of interest which each individual may have, as a citizen, in education generally as affecting the wellbeing of the community. In many cases the interest of the individual, as a citizen, in education may be quite different from his interest as a prospective employer of the human products of education, for they are likely to affect his particular business interests.

If, however, our discussion here is to be something more than an academic consideration of a kaleidoscopic play of innumerable factors, which all who consider the matter at all deeply must recognize as existing, then we must narrow the field of our discussion in an endeavor to see whether there are any points of view likely to be possessed by business in general. In attempting to act as a spokesman for business on this occasion, and in order that you may appraise what I have to say, you should know something of my own background of training and experience.

To begin with, I am a product of the public school system as it existed in California thirty or forty years ago. Added to this is a college education obtained in the coeducational environment of California and the middlewest of that time, supplemented by an advanced scientific and technical education and a teaching experience in New England. Practically all of my mature life has, however, been spent on the engineering and scientific side of an industry, which was one of the earliest of our presentday organizations to recognize that its future welfare was vitally involved in an increasingly efficient scheme of secondary and university education. Throughout this entire period of my business life I have continued to be actively interested in education itself. In part this interest has found an outlet through service on boards of trustees of some of the great national institutions, and in part through twenty years of service as a member of a board of education here in New Jersey.

With this background painted in, I should like to point out to you what seem to me to be the major changes in the industrial point of view as it relates to conscious interest in secondary education during the past two or three decades. While there were doubtless exceptions here and there, I think it is safe to say that twenty-five years ago most of the units which made up industry were very little, if at all, conscious as regards their interest in the problems and programs of secondary education. The college graduate was only just beginning to be recognized as a valuable potential asset in the march of industrial progress. To a considerable extent he was even still in the position of having to force his way into industry against a long standing conception that college training led primarily to the learned professions and was likely to produce little of value in the socalled more practical affairs of life. Secondary education, insofar as it culminated in graduation from a high school, was probably looked upon with somewhat more tolerance than was college and university education. Graduation from a high-school course was doubtless considered somewhat of an asset as indicating a certain degree of ability. I surmise, however, that except in rare instances very little, if any, thought was given to the content and character of the high-school course itself.

About twenty-five or thirty years ago some of the larger industries, and particularly those which were grounded in applied science, began to realize that if they were to succeed and prosper, they must insure to themselves an adequate supply of properly trained college men who, in addition to their training, were possessed of those characteristics which appear to distinguish somewhat the man of business from the man of the individualistic professions. This need was first recognized on the more purely technical side. On this side the specifications desired were easier to formulate and likewise easier to fill, since the then existing technical schools were following closely in their curriculums the advances in pure science and the trend of practical application.

Starting without very much in the way of organized effort, these leaders of industry soon began to develop a technic in the selection of technical graduates. With experience they began also to influence, through concrete suggestion, the form and scope of technical education. So successful were the results of these early efforts on the purely technical side, that many industries began to extend their conscious wholesale selection of college-trained men to the arts courses and to induct into the non-technical phases of the business, men trained in the institutions of higher learning. As in the case of the technical schools, this increasing demand for arts-course graduates developed many helpful suggestions from industry to the faculties of the colleges and universities. With possibly a few minor exceptions I think that in both the technical and non-technical fields the influence of industry on the form and character of the educational machinery has been confined pretty largely to consideration of what seems to be required to better the human product turned out by that machinery. In the main we of industry recognize clearly that the form and character of the educational machinery is a matter for school men to handle; and that even though we may have definite ideas as to what we should like to see accomplished, we are not experts in the methods applicable for its accomplishment.

At first, both on the technical and non-technical sides, the interest of the more highly developed industrial units in the products of college, technical school, and university education was confined to organizing to stimulate and get a sufficient supply of trained men. This accomplished, the men were for the most part left to make their own way with the industry they had entered. Instances of occasional and sporadic efforts of training within the industry itself did not negative this proposition. With the passage of time and the increase in size and intricacy of the industrial units, however, it finally became clear that if the trained individuals who had been taken into the business were to be assured maximum opportunity to develop for their own and the industry's good, a certain amount of coordinated, planned, industrial education within the industry itself was desirable. As a result, and while each industry handles the problem in its own way and to fit its own needs, we find today an almost universal post-graduate schooling for college, university, and technical school graduates carried on within industry itself during the first few years after a man's employment.

Almost every great modern industry, and frequently almost every major department of an industry, has a staff of trained school men who devote their entire time to the further education of employees. In part the time and effort of these school systems within industry are devoted to specialized training within the industry itself, and in part to making contact for, and supervising the work of employees desiring to avail themselves of the general public and private educational facilities which surround them. Although their industrial school faculties started largely as a result of the recognized need for further training college men, they have expanded far beyond that concept; so that at the present time their main effort, I suspect, is devoted to helping in the advancement of those who have entered industry directly from the primary and secondary schools.

This brings us more particularly to the topic of the evening, "Modern Business Looks at Secondary Education."

Since both modern business and modern education are vertical structures with avenues of egress and ingress at every level, and since the great bulk of those engaged in industry are not college trained, it seems clear that business should take a lively interest in both primary and, more particularly, secondary education. Anything which is done or can be done to enhance the efficiency of secondary education has an immediate beneficial influence on business which each year consumes a very large part of the human output from secondary schools. Conversely, anything which tends to degrade the efficiency of that output has an immediate debasing effect on the efficiency of business.

If we grant, as I think we must, that business should have a vital interest in secondary education, the question at once arises as to whether it does in fact evince that interest. My answer to that question is that I think the last ten years have seen a rapidly growing direct interest of business in secondary education and a rapidly growing desire to contact more intimately with secondary schools and secondary school men. Further, I am strongly of the opinion that in the years just ahead of us business, as exemplified by its more progressive units, will find many ways to be helpful to school men in the better doing of the work they are engaged upon and in the better handling of the boys and girls who leave their care and enter gainful pursuits.

My reason for this attitude is because I have seen, and been part of, the process which has evolved the present relationship between business and higher education; and because I am firmly convinced that the same processes can and should be applied in even larger measure, within the limits of secondary education, to the advantage not only of secondary education and the business which it feeds, but also to the very great advantage of the individuals who pass through the secondary schools and of the society of which they become members. As in the case of higher education, the help which we of business can give to you of education is not to advise you regarding the details of your profession, nor to tell you too specifically what we think about the substance of your curriculums, but rather to tell you, out of our experience with your past product, the characteristics which we think should be present in the product of the years to come.

There was a time, not so many years ago, when many in business had more or less the idea that business would be best served, and men would make the greatest progress in it, if their courses of formal training led pretty directly to the processes then in vogue in business. Such ideas still doubtless prevail in many directions, but increasing numbers of the more thoughtful leaders of business have come to appreciate that since business is not a stagnant thing but is evolving and developing day by day, no scheme of education of the individuals who must form the living cells of the structure is efficient if it does not give to the individual a training which permits him to exercise every inherent capacity to meet changed and changing conditions. Carried to an extreme of absurdity, a scheme of education which brought into any business a boy or girl perfectly trained in the technic of the moment but without capacity of adaptation to changing conditions, would leave that boy or girl substantially a worthless addition to the force within a few weeks or months.

In our general consideration, as citizens, of the progress of secondary education, we hear great clamor and argument about the introduction or non-introduction into the curriculum of this, that, or the other thing, or the making of revolutionary changes in established courses of training. The faddists are with us and, so far as I can see, will always be with us. In some cases they would add this, that, or the other thought-to-be-desirable thing to the already overburdened curriculum, or they would make sweeping revolutionary changes in the whole scheme of things. Many of us, as citizens and parents, think that in some directions we have already gone much too far both in the direction of diffusion of effort on the part of the youth, and in relieving the pressure which insists on real mastery of whatever subject is undertaken. More and more I think that we of business who have given thought to the problem have fortified these opinions gained as citizens and parents. For whatever such an intangible thing as the opinion of business is worth, I should say that we would unite in the advice, "Do even less in the number of things you are now doing if by such a process you can do the remainder better." To this I think we would add, "Above everything, avoid those processes or things which tend to make of education merely a pleasant superficial game and so deprive the child of the opportunity to acquire capacity for hard intellectual work on what are frequently dry and disagreeable tasks."

From what I have just said I trust that you will not gain the impression that we of business would have you make of secondary education merely a cogwheel in a machine to produce efficient human tools for business. We should like of course to have those we employ out of the secondary schools as efficient in the details of our several businesses as we can. At the same time we have relatively little use for detail technic acquired at the expense of more fundamental mind-training. Business itself is quite competent in the main to provide the details of training in the technic of its operations. True, it may be of some help to us in some directions to have boys and girls enter our ranks with a rudimentary knowledge of certain kinds of technic. Further, we have no quarrel with you concerning education in matters of this kind if you believe that the things you do have a sound pedagogical basis. We do quarrel with you if you carry this kind of training too far in amount or diversity, and so deprive your product of the capacity to advance in afterlife for lack of suitable training of mind, which you of the secondary schools alone have the opportunity to give.

By way of emphasis on this last point of view, I feel safe in saying that we of business, in our consideration of secondary education, are coming more and more to believe that that secondary education is best, not only for us but for our employees as well, which, in addition to training the mind to concentrated intense application on the task at hand, develops in the individual maximum capacity for thoughtful consideration of any problem he or she may be called upon to consider, and indoctrinates in every boy and girl a desire to seek enjoyment and contentment in the more substantial things of life. As a group, we are finding now, if we did not know it before, that the man or woman who is a good citizen, with capacity through training to lead a happy life without complete dependence on artificial stimulation, and to approach every problem thoughtfully is the finest asset which any organization can have. We have learned that those who are trivial and incapable of thoughtful consideration in their general lives are inevitably trivial and unthoughtful in their industrial environment, and so are a drag not only on their own progress but on the organization of which they are a part.

I think you may be sure that we of business in the years ahead are bound to take a more concretely active interest in secondary education than we have in the past and that both you and we will profit by the enlarged contacts which this increased interest brings about.

In closing, I would like to say that if you derive from what I have said any impression that I was talking merely from the standpoint of the large industrial units, I hope you will disabuse your minds of it. It is true, as I see it, that the bigger industrial units are those most likely to be interested concretely and intelligently in the problem of secondary education, to be those who come most closely in contact with youth. It is quite clear that even the smaller units of business through their various associations and through the example of their large brethren are more and more coming to take a real concrete interest in the education of those who are to be their employees.

My own opinion is that in the years just ahead business, which in the past has paid great attention to the getting of college-trained men, is going to pay a very much greater attention to the selection and further training of boys and girls who have been deprived for one reason or another of the opportunity to go to college, and this for two reasons. In the first place the supply is very much greater, and consequently the number of inherently able people is probably very much greater, and also because we who have had twenty-five or thirty years of intensive search for, and use of, college-trained men, have come to appreciate what a horrible thing we have done in taking certain college-trained men into industry, of stimulating men to go to college and struggle through to a degree and go out into life when they would be far better fitted for the struggle of existence had they never gone. I know of no more pathetic individual in life than a man with a college degree who at the age of forty or fifty finds himself far behind the procession of his fellows. He would give everything there was in the world if he could get rid of that degree. He would have been a far happier person had he never struggled to that point.

I think we are going to try in the years to come to make a more intelligent selection of our people. It is true we are going to continue to use college-trained men in great numbers, but we are going to try to use an even greater number of people who have not had the opportunity to go to college, and we are going to try to supplement what you do for them with a better scheme of industrial education after they have come with us. Throughout this whole process the game will have to be a cooperative one between you of the school world and we of industry.

I don't know that I can illustrate any better what kind of cooperation I have in mind than by telling a story of the kind of cooperation which might exist between us. It is a story of a traffic officer and an accident at the corner of Thirty-Fourth Street and Fifth Avenue. Those of you who have traveled up and down Fifth Avenue realize that when the signals are set for the north and south traffic to move, it moves quite rapidly, and when the signals are set for it to stop, it stops quite rapidly. According to this tale, the traffic had been moving north and south on Fifth Avenue. The signals changed just as a big Packard limousine came up to the south side of Thirty-Fourth Street. It stopped very promptly, so promptly that a small Ford car immediately behind bumped into it. Immediately the traffic officer on duty went over to this man driving the Ford, pulled out his little book, and said, "Hey, you, what do you mean by running into this fellow ahead? Can't you see where you are going and stop when the signals come to stop? What's your name?"

"Casey."

"First name?"

"Michael."

"Where were you born, Michael Casey?"

"County Claire."

"Are you one of those Michael Casey's from County Claire?"

"Yes."

"You just wait right here until I go up forward and see what that big boob meant by backing down into you."

EDUCATION MOVES FORWARD

WILLIAM JOHN COOPER, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

When President Cody informed me that the theme for this evening's meeting was "Life Is Dynamic" and that I was to speak for education, there came at once to my mind a favorite theme of H. G. Wells. Shortly after the close of the Great War and the failure of the treaty-makers to put into effect any plan at all adequate to make real the idealism so ably voiced during the conflict by President Wilson, Mr. Wells by tongue and pen endeavored to convince the thinkers of the world that our presentday civilization presented a race between disaster and education. "The present system," said he, "*unless it can develop a better intelligence and a better heart,* is manifestly destined to foster fresh wars and to continue wasting what is left of the substance of mankind, until absolute social disaster overtakes us."[1]

A decade has passed. Many of the influential men who sat at Versailles have joined those hapless millions who paid the high price on Flanders fields, or, who, broken in fortune, in body, in mind, or in spirit, have now passed from their sufferings. In spite of tremendous war costs and accumulated debts, the decade has been one of the most significant in the history of the world. Certainly none has been more dynamic. Religious concepts established for centuries have been challenged. Social institutions considered basic to modern society have been undermined. Economic structures considered essential to civilization itself show signs of decay. Governments have been revolutionized and properly constituted law openly defied. Painstaking laboratory research into the nature of the atom, the photo-electric cell, and the basic cell of living tissue have made great progress, and discoveries any day may force radical changes in our thinking and in our ways of living. Where is education? Is it also dynamic or is it lagging? Is the race to end in disaster or can education develop "a better intelligence and a better heart?"

Let us look first at Asia, cradle of mankind, forbear of civilization, home of more than half the population of the globe. The India Act of 1919, which became effective in 1921, set up for the Government of India a dyarchy with division of powers between the central government and some fifteen provincial governments. One of the functions of the latter is education which took high rank in the light of His Majesty's announcement that Parliament would encourage India to become a selfgoverning dominion of the Empire.

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[1] Wells, H. G. *The Salvaging of Civilization.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1921. p. 198.

Here face to face with the difficulties of democratic government is a population more than double that of the United States, occupying about sixty percent as much territory with poorly developed transportation facilities. It is bound by tradition, cursed by a caste system, and over ninety-two percent illiterate. Surely India presents the greatest challenge to education! And yet I can report promising progress. The last official report, issued by the India Office in January, 1929, says:

> During 1925-26 there was an exceptionally large increase in the number of scholars under instruction throughout India. The number of recognized institutions increased by over 9300 during that year, and the number of scholars by over 690,000. There was also a rise in the number of scholars reading in professional colleges. The percentage of males under instruction in recognized institutions to the total population was 6.5 as against 6.0 in 1924-25, and the percentage of females was 1.3 as against 1.2 in the previous year. The rise of 0.5 percent in the percentage for males was the largest increase recorded in any one year during the last ten years, and though this percentage is still far from satisfactory, it compares very favorably with the figure for ten years ago which was only 4.7. Unfortunately the percentage for females is rising very slowly. It was 0.9 in 1916 and after ten years it has risen to only 1.3.[1]

If, however, we keep in mind the centuries-old prejudice against female education, we can rejoice that the enrolment gains reported for the last five-year period have nearly equaled those of the previous ten, and that the number of women preparing to teach is increasing rapidly. Although the total expenditures for education, measured in terms of American money, seems small—about seventy-five million dollars (for 1926-27)—we must remember that this is approximately double the annual expenditure of some five years earlier. Even on this most difficult battle line we can report that education moves forward.

To the north and east of India lies that other ancient civilization, China. Here live approximately one-fourth of the entire population of the world and a decade ago eighty percent of these people were illiterate. Education has won two major battles on this front. I speak first of the socalled "literary revolution," under the leadership of Professor Hu Shih, whose slogan was "No dead language can produce living literature." As a result of this revolution China is developing a great literature in *Pei-hua,* the language spoken by over three-fourths of the Chinese people. Today the newspapers and periodicals, together with many books in the vernacular, constitute a great unifying force. The older language, known as *Wen-li,* in which the great classics are written and in which the examinations for government service have been held, required a lifetime for its mastery. This resulted in the development of a scholarly class which is held in high regard by the Chinese people and an inevitably high percent of illiteracy.

The second movement seems to have had its origin behind the lines in France where nearly 200,000 Chinese laborers were employed. A Chinese scholar, fresh from his courses in Yale University, was assigned to work with his fellow countrymen in an effort to keep them better satisfied and to reduce, if possible, the terrible homesickness which was afflicting them. This American-educated Chinese, Mr. Y. C. James Yen,[1] and his associates, undertook to make literate this mass of coolies. From their experiments has developed "the foundation characters," a list of some 1,000 of the most commonly used elements in *Pei-hua.* A series of four textbooks based upon this vocabulary has been prepared. In each book are found twenty-four lessons involving ten or eleven characters each. Each lesson has three parts: A picture to arouse the interest, a reading exercise in the character based upon the picture, and new characters for advance study. And out of this effort has developed the "mass education movement"[2] with a method of teaching illiterates in classes of from one hundred to two hundred persons. Approximately six million students, between the ages of sixteen and thirty are now enroled under 120,000 volunteer teachers. The goal set by these altruists is to make literate at least one hundred million people. In China, too, education moves forward and in big strides.

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[1] *East India* (*Progress and Condition*). Statement exhibiting the moral and material progress and condition of India during the year 1927-28. Sixty-third number. His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1929. p. 369.

To the north lies the land of "the bear that walks like a man," known to American school children as the Russian Empire, embracing in 1914 one-sixth of the area of the earth and a population of over one hundred and eighty million. Today approximately one hundred and forty millions of these people are banded together in a federation known as "The Union of Socialist Soviet Republics," claiming for 1926-27 nearly 11,000,000 pupils in all schools of elementary and secondary grade as against some 7,000,000 in the schools of the larger imperial state. But in addition to these, more than eight million adults were reported as attending school in the same year and over a million more were enroled in 27,000 societies for home studies. The census of 1920 showed an average of 465 literates in each 1,000 of population. Six years later the ratio was 567 per 1,000, a gain of nearly twenty-five percent. In spite of our feeling that it is a grievous error to use the schools to make of each pupil "a stalwart and healthy proletarian, a class and a revolutionary fighter, a scientifically conscious and organized builder of the new socialist state,"[3] yet we must count the opening of school doors to children of all classes, the wide introduction of laboratory methods, and greater pupil participation in the government of the schools as all gains for democracy in the long run. Therefore, education moves forward in Russia.

Although other nations have made almost unbelievable progress in leavening the mass, the real educational miracle has been performed in Turkey. An Oriental people, which had occupied the very cradle of European culture for over four centuries, found itself at the close of the Great War with a population of approximately fourteen million, some seventy-five percent of which were illiterate. Presently it, too, threw off the monarchial yoke and confronted its new leaders with the situation so ably phrased over a century ago by Jefferson, who wrote to his friend, Colonel Yancey: "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be."[1] The President of the infant republic, Mustapha Kemal Pasha, realized that illiteracy in Turkey presented an exceptionally difficult problem due to the fact that the Turkish language was recorded in an Arabic alphabet of 482 characters. The small percent of the population which could afford schooling spent far more time in learning Turkish than children of equal ability spent in learning any of the western languages. Foreigners who had lived for years in Turkey and spoke Turkish fluently were unable to learn to read and write the language. Educated young Turks also found it difficult to learn languages written in the Roman alphabet.

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[1] Yen, Y. C. James. "How to Educate China's Illiterate Millions for Democracy in a Decade." Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education, 1923, *Bulletin 15, Vol. II,* Peking, China.

[2] Ibid. The mass education movement in China. The Commercial Press, Ltd., Shanghai, China, 1925.

[3] Harper, Samuel Northrup. *Civic Training in Soviet Russia.* The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill., 1929. p. 268.

The progressive President appointed a commission which, in 1928, reported to him a plan for writing Turkish in a Latinized alphabet of only twenty-nine characters. Kemal Pasha first mastered the new writing himself and then grasped every occasion to make speeches about it. During a speech he frequently called illiterate peasants to the lecture platform where he taught them to read and write their own names often within ten or fifteen minutes. On November 1, 1928, the Grand National Assembly met and passed a law adopting the new alphabet. It became effective for newspapers within thirty days and for documents and records of other types on different later dates. But on and after June 1, 1930, all records and documents in Turkey must be kept according to the new system if one is to avoid penalties. After seven years of hard work, a new Latinized-Turanian alphabet will replace Arabic for some thirty million Asiatic peoples belonging to the Soviet Union. But in no other place has an effort to change a fundamental habit of the educated class of a nation within a period of a few months met with such success as has this movement in Turkey.

In addition rapid progress has been made in the elimination of illiteracy on a nationwide scale. To promote these ends the government aids financially two courses for adults: first, a two-months course for those who know how to read and write the old Turkish, or a foreign language; and second, a four-months course for those who are entirely illiterate. These classes meet twice a week, those for women in the afternoon and those for men in the evening. All Turkish citizens, male and female, between the ages of sixteen and forty who have not already passed an examination in the new alphabet must attend these classes or be subjected to penalty. In the city of Constantinople alone more than 200,000 persons were reported in attendance in these classes in 1929. Truly, education moves—even vaults forward here![2]

It is obvious that I may not take time to examine in detail the progress of education in all the nations of the earth. The continent of Africa, with a population about equal to that of the United States, represents the shadow in the educational picture. We have literacy statistics for only about one-sixth of the population, that of Egypt over ninety percent illiterate, and that of the Union of South Africa with a large native (Bantu) population also over ninety percent illiterate. The present policy of Britain toward its colonies and mandates is not to attempt to model black men after the fashion of civilized Britons. English teachers going to African colonies must first master the native language. Slowly are changes made in the savage cults, and very slowly, indeed, are tribal habits and customs changed. But a consistent policy of fitting these tribes into a place in the world economy is gradually developing.

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[1] Quoted in *Public Education in the United States*, by E. P. Cubberley. Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, N. Y., 1919. p. 57.

[2] Wood, Margaret M. "Latinizing the Turkish Alphabet: A study in the introduction of a cultural change." *The American Journal of Sociology*, September 1929, Vol. XXV, No. 2, p. 194-203.
Williams, Maynard Owen, "Turkey Goes to School." *The National Geographic Magazine*, January 1929, Vol. LV, No. 1, p. 95-108.

In Latin-America, too, the picture reveals fewer high lights than one might like to see. Nevertheless, expenditures for education are taking high rank in the national budgets of Argentina, Chile, and Uraguay. Brazil reports increased enrolment in primary schools and a promising beginning in adult education. A delegation of Brazilian educators is visiting us at the present time, studying our schools.

In our neighbor, Mexico, the outlook is much brighter. The Secretariat of Public Instruction, reestablished in 1921, has a department of rural schools and indigenous culture. Under the leadership of Dr. Moises Saenz rural schools and cultural missions have been established in eleven states at the expense of the federal government. Within the three-year period, 1924-27, there was a threefold increase in number of schools, teachers, and pupils, and a hundred percent increase in expenditure for them. For each cultural mission there is a principal teacher who handles the formal school work, a teacher of physical education and games, a teacher of agriculture and animal husbandry, a teacher of minor industries, and a social worker who teaches homemaking, child care, and assists the community to organize and attack its local problems. In the last three years of the primary school course each pupil enroled is expected to teach one illiterate child to read and write! Certainly education moves forward in Mexico!

But in western Europe whence have come the ancestors of our own people and also most of our own educational program, marvelous changes are coming to pass. The general trend toward republican institutions has brought these countries face to face with the incongruity of school systems which educate for positions of leadership a small percentage of the population selected on the basis of birth and wealth and put the rest of them through an entirely different system. In Germany, where the aristocratic type of educational program was most highly perfected, there has been rapid growth of the socalled *einheit-schule* since the close of the war.

The constitutions of the new republics safeguard the rights of women and children. Compulsory education laws have been enacted generally and enforcement of them improved. There is great interest in the socalled "activity school." France by decrees in 1923 revised its elementary curriculum, eliminating much memory work. Italy, in the same year, made kindergartens an essential part of elementary education, began experiments with a unified kindergarten-primary unit, and authorized a three-year course for teachers in these schools.

The progress of adult education of a cultural type, especially in Great Britain, is too wellknown in America to merit space here; yet I pause to call attention to the splendid success of the radio in this field, both in England, where a journal containing outlines of the lectures broadcast accompanied by diagrams and other illustrations enjoys a large newsstand sale, and in Austria where a similar publication, *Wien,* is a good seller. Even in torn and bleeding Europe education moves forward!

But I hope that you will feel a sense of responsibility for the final outcome. Recently I was told that a leading authority on comparative education said that the outstanding movement in the educational world during the next generation would be the effort on the part of other nations of the world to remake their school systems after the American model. Should this prophecy become reality, whether education moves forward or not, depends very largely upon what we do in this country. It is pertinent then for us to give particular attention to whither we are headed. I shall try to summarize trends briefly. The trend most discussed in lay circles is the increased expenditure for education. Measured in terms of dollars this item has increased from $1,036,151,209 in 1920 to $2,184,847,200 in 1928. We have not always done our full duty in explaining to the few who would find fault with this sum and who resent the growing percent which it constitutes of the total public revenues that school taxes must cover not only the shrinking of the dollar and increased school services in common with other public revenues, but they must include markedly increased school attendance and improved teaching service.

This rapid increase in enrolment in our secondary schools and in our collegiate institutions must challenge the attention of the world. In 1920, 28.4 percent of the fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen-year-old group was in school. By 1928 the figures reported to the Federal Office of Education indicated that more than fifty-three percent of this eligible age group was in school. It is, therefore, safe for us to say that the figures for the close of school this year will reveal that within one decade the number of adolescents in American secondary schools has doubled. In colleges the situation is similar. In the college year, 1920, more than 462,000 students were enroled; in 1928 there were some 400,000 more, making it safe to predict that when the figures for 1930 are received, we shall discover that enrolment in our colleges has doubled within a decade. These figures do not include some 40,000 students in nearly 400 junior colleges, most of which are less than ten years old.

Collegiate and professional education is rapidly shifting from old world tradition to new world conditions. Experiments are under way in the oldest and heretofore most conservative institutions. Some college faculties are critically examining their own procedures, all are studying their teaching technics and many are challenging the very foundations of their curriculums. Professional education is under careful scrutiny. Normal schools, borrowed from the old world to inculcate a vocational skill, are giving way before a professionalized institution known as the American teachers college. Short cuts to the practise of most of the other professions are disappearing. Medical education has attained high standing; legal education is striving to approach it; engineering education manifests much unrest and some dissatisfaction with the lack of liberal culture in the old course; nursing, pharmacy, and other professions more or less related to medicine are constructively studying their problems.

The public school system itself manifests an activity which presages rapid changes within the near future. In administration there is a marked trend toward formulating policies in council which involves all groups including classroom teachers. Principals generally have shown a professional activity not witnessed in any other period of educational history, and American elementary school principals have formed a strong, compact organization for research into their own problems which has accomplished one of the most significant educational transformations of the decade. Supervision is now recognized as a proper field for expert study, as witnessed by this Department giving over its Eighth Yearbook to a survey of this aspect of education.

More significant in view of the increased enrolment and the longer school year are the studies in the curriculum in all parts of our country. This work is reflected in your yearbooks, in teachers' institute programs, university catalogs, in texts coming from the presses of our schoolbook-makers, and in the work of the experimental schools.

The junior high school, constituting the one distinctly American unit in our educational system, has also spread with great rapidity during this decade and now enrols almost fifty percent of the entire eligible group. Its curriculum, especially adapted to early adolescents, is rapidly taking shape and a program of activities unknown in the old elementary school promises better preparation for adult citizenship.

There is widespread interest in a program of extracurriculum activities in all schools but especially in those on the secondary level. This is evidenced by a rapidly developing literature on the subject. Many educators welcome the new program as rich in possibilities for civic and avocational education; others fear "fads," "frills," and "soft pedagogy." All in all the attitude is favorable, and this field offers ample opportunity for types of experimentation closed to the regular curriculum.

The adult education program is rapidly expanding in every section of our country. One of the states reported more adults enroled in a recent year in afternoon and evening classes than there were adolescents enroled in all four high-school grades. This movement is marked by a renewed earnestness on the part of those who would banish illiteracy forever from our country and by pioneers who see the need of enriching life if it is to stand successfully the strains of increasing leisure time.

Not least noteworthy among these evidences that American education moves ahead are efforts of schoolmen to adopt new tools to their use. Time permits notice of only a few of these. Heroic efforts are being made to recover the motion picture after its long Hollywood debauch. Yale University has expended large sums of money in filming "The Chronicles of America." Professors Knowlton and Tilton[1] have carefully checked against other methods of instruction the results of using such films. In seventh-grade history teaching they discovered decided advantages of the visual method over the older plan of book teaching alone.

You are well aware of the experiments of Finegan and his associates, financed by George Eastman, and of the advantages of the use of these films in geography and elementary general science found by Professors Frank Freeman and Ben Wood.

In the meantime there arises an entirely new instrument—the talking picture. Already its possibilities in recording the operations of great surgeons have been demonstrated. Men like the Mayos, who cannot be had for the faculties of our medical schools, may perform their operations under the camera, explain them in detail, and send them not only into the medical schools but into every city and hamlet of the land to keep the medical profession uptodate and alert. At this very convention there is displayed a film made as an experiment to ascertain how effective this new tool may be in teaching to junior high-school students the heretofore bookish and formal subject called "civics."

We note the renewed interest of educators in the use of radio, a tool of tremendous power which appeared to be degenerating into an instrument of cheap entertainment, blating out advertising and propaganda. The City of Cleveland reports unexpected results in subjects considered most bookbound. The State of Ohio has a well-established program now receiving critical evaluation. Both of the great broadcasting companies are undertaking experiments on a nationwide scale, one in music particularly, and the other in history, literature, art and music appreciation. Committees are at work studying the possibilities of recording on discs for local broadcast at any time great lectures by eminent scholars in various fields. When we contemplate what such a record or a talking picture of the Gettysburg Address would mean to us today, our minds can comprehend the importance of the efforts of these experimenters.

American educators are studying in scientific and professional spirit the problems of our time. They are shaking off the fetters of tradition. No longer do schoolboards send delegations abroad to bring back ideas for our democracy. No longer do we send our foremost scholars abroad to become authorities in Locke, Rousseau, Hegel, Froebel, and Herbart. Our rapid advance in the sciences basic to education and our supremacy in mechanical lines open for us the road to world leadership in education.

I like the quiet dignity and moving power of a statement issued by the Better Schools League. It is:

> I AM EDUCATION. I bear the torch that enlightens the world, fires the imagination of man, feeds the flame of genius. I give wings to dreams and might to hand and brain.

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[1] Knowlton, Daniel C. *and* Tilton, J. Warren. *Motion Pictures in History Teaching.* Department of Education, Yale University, Yale University Press, 1929. Section XIV.

From out the deep shadows of the past I come, wearing the scars of struggle and the stripes of toil, but bearing in triumph the wisdom of all ages. Man, because of me, holds dominion over earth, air, and sea; it is for him I leash the lightning, plumb the deep, and shackle the ether.

I am the parent of progress, creator of culture, molder of destiny. Philosophy, science, and art are the works of my hand. I banish ignorance, discourage vice, disarm anarchy.

Thus have I become freedom's citadel, the arm of democracy, the hope of youth, the pride of adolescence, the joy of age. Fortunate the nations and happy the homes that welcome me.

The school is my workshop; here I stir ambitions, stimulate ideals, forge the keys that open the door to opportunity. I am the source of inspiration; the aid of aspiration. I am irresistible power.

With such determination and under the leadership of the men and women who sit in this convention, be they professors in our schools of education who constitute our board of strategy, or be they actual administrators in state, county, and city superintendencies who constitute the officers of the great army of 800,000 American educators, *American education moves forward.*

ACHIEVEMENTS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION—INSTRUCTION

CHARLES H. JUDD, DIRECTOR, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILL.

Some years ago shortly after the war, I participated in a survey of the rural schools of New York State. An inadequate supply of teachers and economic necessity in many of the rural homes of the state had conspired to send back into the schools as teachers a number of matrons who fifteen or twenty years before had left the teaching profession because of the allurements of matrimony. These people sometimes brought back into the schools the methods and pedagogical attitudes of their earlier years.

Never have I had a more vivid demonstration of the movements which have carried American education forward than I saw in those schools of 1922 which were being conducted in the spirit and by the methods of 1905. I am not sure that I can convey to you at this time the impression of contrast which a direct observation of the type which I have described made on my mind. To put that contrast into words, I must make at least three detailed statements with respect to the particulars in which our schools differ from those of a generation ago.

First, the curriculum is broader and richer.

Second, contemporary methods aim to develop the highest powers of the individual rather than to cultivate in a routine way mere imitative memory.

Third, schools are not directed as much as they were at an earlier date by guesses as to what children need. Schools are guided today in an encouraging measure by definitely, scientifically determined principles.

Let us turn to the evidence in support of these three statements. It is very easy to show that the curriculum has been enlarged. Enlargement has come not merely through the addition of new subjects, though many new subjects have been introduced into schools of all grades. The curriculum has expanded in the important sense that vastly more comes into the experiences of pupils than was provided even by the best schools of earlier days.

In the year 1890, President Charles W. Eliot, describing a typical school of elementary grade in Massachusetts, made the following statement: "I procured two careful estimates of the time it would take a graduate of a high school to read aloud consecutively all the books which are read in the elementary school during six years, including the history, the reading lesson in geography, and the rest. The estimates were made by two persons reading aloud at a moderate rate and reading everything that the children in most of the rooms of that school have been supposed to read during their entire course of six years. The time occupied in doing this reading was forty-six hours."

You will recall that President Eliot was talking about a school in Massachusetts. If the children of that enlightened commonwealth suffered from such a limited program of reading, what must have been the conditions surrounding the pupils in such centers as Chicago and the less favored parts of the country.

The offerings of 1890 were meager. The experiences of the individual pupils were meager. The Commissioner of Education tells us that at the date at which President Eliot made his investigations, the average American citizen went to school only 770 days. This is about as long as the present-day pupil who reaches the middle of the fifth grade attends.

It is pertinent to ask, therefore, what the average fifth-grader reads in the schools of 1930. I have called to my aid a number of intelligent fifth-grade teachers. They tell me that the pupils read at least eight or nine times as much as President Eliot reports for pupils in 1890. Many pupils read even more than is implied in these figures.

Our limited time dictates that I forego the presentation of further detailed evidence of the expansion of the curriculum. New courses in art and technical subjects, new materials in history and geography are parts of the enlarged curriculum, but these new courses would be of little avail unless individual pupils were interested in their contact with the accumulated experience of the race as that experience appears in written records.

The expansion of the curriculum is the reflection in the school of the expanding demands of modern life. It is a commonplace that our mechanical industry has broadened the relations of individuals. Transportation and devices of communication have made the individual part of a greatly extended community. Industrial organization and international commerce have made provincialism increasingly dangerous. The schools of today are preparing for a broad life. They must be broad in their contents of instruction. They are broad. They have progressed with the progress of the world.

The second statement made regarding the progress of schools is that they have adopted new methods. One hardly realizes how greatly methods have changed, because schools are even now moving forward in this respect at a rapid pace. The older idea that all pupils are alike has given place to the demonstrated fact that individuals are so different that they require a very large measure of specific training. Furthermore, the modern school is by no means content to put individuals through series of rudimentary and routine processes. The highest powers of the pupils must be stimulated and cultivated.

The effort to bring out the best that is possible in the personality of each pupil has led teachers to undertake experiments in method, which were never thought of a generation ago. The result is sometimes a certain confusion in the minds of people. Parents sometimes complain that teachers are departing from established practises; even school officers are sometimes disturbed by the conflicting suggestions which come from different quarters. Full well can many of us remember, for example, when the first suggestions were made that pupils should be taught to read not by a single oral method. The schools had implied oral methods of teaching reading from time immemorial. To change and develop a new method required the courage and energy which are always necessary to accomplish an innovation. The impressive fact is that in less than a decade the principle, that reading shall be taught by a new method, secured universal acceptance. The history of education shows that formerly educational innovations have been effected only after protracted delays. The characteristic fact about the present period is not alone a willingness to experiment with new methods, but an almost feverish anxiety to find new possibilities with which to experiment.

We must not overlook the hazards which arise from this willingness to introduce change. If some enthusiastic advocate of a new method appears, he can usually attract a following. Hardly a day passes when we are not told that pictures are to supersede textbooks and that a new form of writing is about to be imported from England, or that recitations are antiquated and lecturing to classes is a cardinal sin. The center of the school is shifted from point to point until one wonders whether the school is not a complex figure with several foci.

There are times when one almost wishes that some educational authority might be set up competent to choose between the various ways suggested for bringing up children. But there is no one who can dictate, experimental endeavor is recognized as characteristic of our times. However disturbing and shocking to pedagogical complaisance the movements of our day, they are here and constitute a part of the educational history of our period. There can be no doubt that there is a net gain in this restless experimentation. We know today much more about the stages of maturity than was ever known before. We have skilful workers who are discovering ways of dealing with remedial cases. The keen watchfulness with which we are detecting the points in learning where children have difficulty and the energy which we manifest in overcoming difficulties, these and many other details might be adduced in support of the statement that modern schools are engaged in devising new methods and have already succeeded in commendable measure in discovering and adopting more effective ways of helping pupils to mature properly.

The expansion in the curriculum and the changes in methods of teaching would never have come to pass if American schools had not been led to adopt an attitude of frank objective criticism of the results which they were securing.

Our American habit of open criticism of one another and of our public institutions has made this country the home of a unique creation, namely, the science of education. In Europe, schools are official. They cannot be reconstructed except with the consent of the ruling classes. In America, there is such universal membership in the ruling classes that no institution escapes critical examination. This is fortunate because it compels us to accept the dictates of scientific studies since we are unsatisfied with one another's opinions.

In the last decade and a half of the nineteenth century, a number of leaders directed the attention of school people to the possibility of substituting scientifically established principles for the trial and error method which had up to that time been employed in directing school practises. The names of these pioneers are known to all of us. We criticise the relatively crude and inexact methods which they employed, but like all who initiated great movements, they deserve to be revered even though their methods have been superceded by more highly evolved technics. G. Stanley Hall, J. M. Rice, and above all, John Dewey started America on a career of scientific study of education. These labors have resulted in a spirit of experimentation to which reference was made a moment ago.

The new spirit of scientific inquiry and evaluation of results has reached and inspired many teachers even in the remotest and most isolated school districts of our land. We see that progress of instruction has not been alone in concrete additions to the curriculum and changes in methods as important as these are. The chief change in American schools is in the temper in which they organize their teaching. That temper is one of candid devotion to continual improvement. The most significant fact about the improvement of teaching in our schools is that it has just begun. We have not only had expansion in the curriculum and improvement in methods which provide for adjustment of the individual but we have had a spirit of further expansion instilled into our minds by our leaders and this further expansion and critical examination is the most promising feature of the American educational system. It is this spirit of constant improvement which supplies the safe answer to our critics and a sound basis for unbounded optimism. If our new methods are inappropriate, we shall revise them. He who deems the changes which we are making to be inappropriate, can contribute to our future practise if he will supply us with well-substantiated reasons for the position which he takes. There is no limit to the progress which we can make through the adoption of the formula, that all our ways must be validated by definite, explicit reasons. The highest achievement of American schools in the field of instruction is in the adoption, then, of a program of scientific study which will lead to further enlargements of the curriculum and further improvements of the methods of administering contents of instruction.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION—ORGANIZATION

JOHN H. LOGAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEWARK, N. J.

American school superintendents, as executive heads of citizen boards, provided these boards have direct access to public revenues and are free from political entanglements, possess the greatest educational opportunities of any official group in history.

This development has come about through a combination of circumstances, the discussion of which is the purpose of this program. It is my responsibility to speak of the part that *organization* has played in this achievement.

Organization insofar as it can be separated from instruction, administration, and facilities may be considered in its relation to:

1. Systems of grading and grouping
2. Types of schools and special agencies
3. Means of adjustment and coordination.

1. *Grading and Grouping*—The eight-four system of grading is peculiarly American, but this does not guarantee merit. Its origin was an accident and its results have not been satisfactory. It has never been fully accepted in this country, because many districts of the southern states still use the seven-four system and many schools in New England use the seven-five or the nine-three plan. The adjustments arising from placing the American secondary school between the elementary school and the university are chiefly responsible for the peculiar grading of our public schools.

Our graded school system did not come into existence by the adoption of a European model, although Sturm's plan at Strassburg may have had some influence, nor did it originate in the educational theories promoted by Horace Mann. It followed inevitably from the Colonial three-group plan, because of the increased size of the schools. I am saying this to emphasize the fact that there is nothing sacred in our plan of grading or grouping.

From that day in 1848, when John Philbrick of Boston opened the first graded school in America, to the present moment, his scheme of organization has been the hope and the despair of schoolmen. The need for system produced graded schools and the same need will perpetuate them. The problem of how to use them and not become enslaved by them is still with us. Mr Shearer in his little book, *The Grading of Schools,* expresses this tendency when he says, "Gradually the Philbrick plan was adopted and by 1860 the schools of most of the large cities and towns were graded. By 1870, in less than a quarter of a century, the pendulum had swung from no system to nothing but system."

The sins of the traditional graded system, and they are sins, because they violate law, originate from the premises underlying the plan. These erroneous assumptions are that all children should learn the same things in the same way in the same time. Their application produced the curses *retardation* and *elimination.*

The discovery of the great differences in the abilities of school children and the persistence of such differences have given rise to the conclusion that the operation of our grading system must be greatly modified if not entirely supplanted. Already several important modifications are being extensively tested, which leads us to the consideration of the recent practise of grouping.

The attempts to modify the school's organization to meet the needs of various types of pupils and individuals are responsible for the presence of such groups as Montessori, kindergarten, sub-primary or reception, subnormal, opportunity, parental, prevocational, slow progress, rapid progress, mixed grades, and homogeneous groups which will be understood without definitions.

The presence of the preliminary or nursery groups has tended to delay the operation of the graded grind and these groups might be extended a year or so longer to advantage. Conceivably, children generally would progress quite as well on a minimum curriculum of tool subjects if ungraded until seven or eight years of age.

If the subnormal group is confined strictly to the mentally retarded and the feeble-minded, these pupils will naturally be freed from the grading system. The dull normals, however, must still be reckoned with. This class now represented by opportunity, mixed grade, parental, slow progress, and prevocational groups must not be denied normal progress. The organization of these groups will remain a mere gesture unless the teaching and the curriculum provided insure such progress. To continue to use, as the standard for grading all pupils, the traditional academic curriculum, designed for a highly selected group, is to court disaster. The danger is that we shall let mere machinery and system control our program of education.

2. *Schools and Special Agencies*—The influences exerted by educational philosophy and psychology, the rapid extension of economic opportunities, and the general desire for an improved social status are responsible for the organization of a group of schools and special agencies such as the alternating plan, the platoon plan, the all-year school, the vocational school, the continuation school, the occupational school, the art school, the technical school, the junior high school, and the junior college. Most of these agencies, as parts of a public school system, are peculiarly American achievements. This is especially true of the cosmopolitan high school, the junior high school, and the junior college.

All of these schools and agencies imply departmental and specialized work requiring distinctive organizations for their operation. No doubt each has a place somewhere in our educational system, but to find that place and to keep the organization in its place present real problems.

The alternating school, for example, is better adapted to an industrial community or to the industrial section of a community than to a residential district, while the platoon school is equally well adapted to both types of communities. From another point of view the platoon organization has its limitations; this type is fifty percent departmental; therefore, it has no place in the lower primary grades, and since it is essentially inflexible, it is incompatible with the exploratory functions of the junior high school. Thus, the platoon organization, after twenty years of experimentation and much laudation, has found its level and may be appraised as a workable plan for departmentalizing grades four to six. In Newark where sixteen plants enroling 16,000 pupils operate on this plan, there has resulted an enrichment of the curriculum, a better distribution of activities among specially-trained teachers, and some saving over the traditional type of school in pupil-housing. If we extend this system, it will not be for the purpose of economy—that would reduce its value—but we shall adapt some of its features to our traditional schools.

The all-year school has not yet rendered great service to education, and its growth has been slow. However, there have been recent indications of renewed interest in this organization and further experimentation may be expected. Newark has nine elementary schools of this type and one senior high school with a total enrolment of approximately 12,000 pupils. The purpose of the all-year school is the same as its prototype, the vacation school which originated in New England as a private enterprise fifty years ago. In 1885 the vacation school was started in Newark. This is said to be the first venture of a municipal board of education into this field, although, of course, the idea was not new. The first all-year school in Newark was organized in 1912 from which time until the present this type of school and the vacation or summer school have flourished side by side. The all-year school may have some advantages over the summer school, but until a scheme is devised by which the terms of the all-year school become coterminous with those of the ten-month variety, school administration will be in difficulty.

I shall dismiss the vocational, technical, occupational, continuation, and art schools with one observation, namely, that these organizations should form an integral part of the local school systems. Any county or state control which separates them from the local systems tends to deprive these systems of means for educational diversification necessary in cosmopolitan communities.

The junior high school was the result of several educational influences, among them, the desire to enrich the curriculum advocated by President Charles Eliot in 1888, the conviction that adolescent youth requires a peculiar type of school urged by the Committee on Articulation, 1911, and the attempt to shorten the road to college proposed by the Committee on the Economy of Time, 1913. The great junior high-school movement, beginning at Berkeley and Los Angeles twenty years ago, has justified itself; for it has improved the content of the curriculum and it has applied modern psychology to its program. It has not provided a short cut to college, nor is this regrettable. Although many pretentions of the junior high school have evaporated and the superiority of a 6-3-3 grade grouping over a 6-6 plan or a 6-4-2 plan has become doubtful, nevertheless in two decades this type of organization has accumulated six hundred thousand pupils in thirteen thousand schools serving four hundred and twenty-five districts. This institution will continue to thrive if we refrain from worshiping it as a distinctive mechanism. The value of any grade organization is dependent largely upon the facilities it furnishes in relation to appropriateness, variety, convenience, and cost.

In recent years attention has been directed to higher education eventuating in the proposal for a 6-4-4 plan in public school organization. This contemplates the completion of two years of what is now classed as college work in socalled junior college grades. Whatever be the ultimate grouping of grades and regardless of the opposition of the private-foundation colleges, the tendency is toward universal education at public expense, at least through the preprofessional education, on a common basis, so that the cost of education really becomes an investment by the state. The extension of free public education through college grade is inevitable.

3. *Coordination and Adjustment*—Organization must extend beyond the classes, departments, and schools which make up a school system. There must be a controling organization to insure coordination of parts, unity of effort, and economy of operation.

In order to secure harmony and efficiency there must be unity of control. The problem we face in Newark is to get unified effort in the field of instruction—a means of focusing departments, bureaus, and agencies upon the teaching process. The line-and-staff organization, even under its best modification, does not secure the desirable coordination of these various agencies. However effective each division may be, it tends to glorify its own work and importance to the detriment of other departments. It tends to become a control instead of a service factor in the administration. One solution of this problem, the one on which we are experimenting, is the operation of a coordinating committee. This committee or council is composed of the superintendent, his deputy, and the assistant superintendents. The heads of departments and service divisions continue to exercise vertical supervision of instruction in a line-and-staff organization, but the committee exercises horizontal supervision in its function of adjusting the work of different instructional departments and bureaus to one another. Briefly, this plan is designed to realize the following purposes:

1. To focus the control of all instruction in the hands of the superintendent's immediate assistants through whom as a committee he may exercise all of his delegated powers and attain his purposes. This does not, however, prevent any officer from appealing direct to the superintendent.

2. To ally all collateral agencies of instruction with the general supervisory agency, delegating their control to the assistant superintendents who are members of the council. Department heads, directors, supervisors, and principals are

invited to participate in the meetings of the committee when matters in which they are concerned are discussed.

3. To set up a line-and-staff organization for supervision of instruction, namely, superintendent, assistant superintendent, principal, director, supervisor, teacher, which may operate independently of departmental rank. Thus, the directors and supervisors will determine the quality of instruction of the special teachers assigned to a given school, but the principal will control the program as authorized by the superintendent and will supervise all the activities in his school as they relate to one another and to the program. Modifications sought by the directors and supervisors are to be referred to the assistant superintendents in charge of the department. The differences between the principal and the directors will be adjusted through the council.

4. To provide for horizontal as well as vertical supervision by retaining the line-and-staff sequence within the departments and bureaus and by adapting the several departments and bureaus to a single citywide program. The directors and supervisors will have initiative and do creative work within their departments, but they will need to keep in close contact with the council. Since the council is responsible for the instructional program, the directors and supervisors will function largely as instructional experts or special technicians for the whole system.

5. To insure stability to the instructional program so that it will not become overbalanced by some rapid expansion of a single interest, and at the same time to leave sufficient flexibility to enable the program to absorb such new features as experimentation may prove valuable.

In relation to the question proposed for today's discussion, namely, what are the distinctive achievements in American school organization, it would be difficult to say that our great city school systems are superior or wholly different from those of other countries, but certainly they are more highly developed on the cooperative principle than foreign systems. Ours may be more costly and operate with less precision, but they are more democratic in spirit, encourage initiative on the part of the officers and teachers, are more responsive to changing conditions, and are closer to community needs.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION—ADMINISTRATION

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In discussing the topic, "Achievements in Administration," I will mention briefly twelve ways in which notable progress has been made in administration. There will be no sensational statements, however, in this paper. My task calls for an appraisal of progress, and I must, therefore, stay close to the facts.

A view of the development in school administration over a twenty-five-year period discloses a gradual evolution from a status of uncertain leadership to the present achievement of rather highly professionalized direction. With the passing years administration of public education has been growing in favor, and the powers and responsibilities delegated to administrative officers have been increasing in scope. This development has been due in large part to the fact that public interest in education is so great that state and local authorities are determined to have competent and effective administration of schools.

As the first achievement in administration I will cite the fact that the position of the school executive has been gaining steadily in social favor and has been continually acquiring enlarged responsibilities. On the question of the growth of functions Haggerty[1] says:

> With the passing years the position of school executive grows in social favor and its delegated powers increase in scope and in stability. The accretion of function is constant, tenure tends to become indeterminate, and economic status ever more adequate and secure. It is a matter of deep significance to American life that in hundreds and thousands of communities throughout the land the school executive, as university president or superintendent of schools, is the most highly salaried public official either in state or local unit; his tenure, although loosely protected by law, tends to remain secure through changing political control and his influence excels in potency that of any other public servant. A tangible expression of this condition is the fact that for few, if any, other positions has the public been willing to accord a salary equal to that of the nation's vicepresident; and commonly throughout the country American society pays more for its school executives than it does for any other publicly employed servants whether professional or political in character.

A second achievement in administration may be defined as the commendable tendency to define higher requirements for candidates for superintendencies. Special programs have been set up in our schools of education to prepare superintendents to meet their responsibilities. Efforts are being made also to insure professional preparation on the part of persons appointed to superintendencies. Some years ago the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools did not attempt to enforce any professional standards for the office of superintendent of schools. It is only within the last ten years that the standards of the Association have been revised in such a way as to require both college training and professional training. Some of the states have set up special requirements for superintendents' licenses. The old assertion, "As is the teacher so is the school," may well be replaced by the new truth, "As is the superintendent so is the school system." This latter pronouncement implies that the superintendent is a powerful agent in setting the standards for school systems. It is my own personal opinion that, because of the responsibilities which are entrusted to the superintendent, standardizing agencies and certificating agencies should give more attention to defining the requirements for the office.

As a third achievement in administration I wish to mention the significant changes now taking place in the legal status of school administration. State legislatures are showing a marked tendency to delegate specific duties to the superintendent of schools. Morrison [2] recently declared that:

> One of the most significant changes now taking place in the legal status of the city school superintendent is the tendency of legislatures to assign certain specific duties directly to the superintendent of schools.

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[1] Haggerty, M. E. *Training the Superintendent of Schools.* Bulletin of University of Minnesota, No. 17, 1925, p. 3.

[2] Morrison, J. C. "The City School Superintendent," *The Nation's Schools,* Vol. II, No. 4, p. 57-8.

> Legislatures are inclined to delegate to city superintendents sole responsibility for the performance of certain administrative acts that are not likely to involve controversial issues. This tendency is illustrated by the fact that twenty-six states have delegated to the superintendent responsibility for granting working papers. In thirteen states he is held responsible for making reports to the state education authorities.

It is my opinion that legal guarantees of the power of the superintendent tend to emphasize the professional character of the office and tend to magnify the importance of the office of superintendent of schools.

A fourth achievement in administration may be stated as follows: There has developed a clearer understanding of the difference between legislative and executive functions in public education with the result that boards of education have tended to limit their activities to the formulating and appraising of policies. This recognition has come about partly as a result of the increased professionalization of the school superintendent. Boards of education are quite willing to delegate executive functions to competent and well-trained persons. Some school districts have gone so far as to place in writing a statement of the executive functions and the legislative functions together with an explanation of the responsibilities of the different agencies in connection with these functions.

As a fifth achievement I wish to direct attention to the increasing evidence that the public recognizes the validity of the contention of educators that school systems should be independent of the municipal government. Deffenbaugh reports that there has been a tendency to consolidate departments of municipal government in an effort to bring about greater efficiency. He states that authorities on municipal government seem to favor placing the budgets of boards of education under the same municipal body as that which handles the budgets of other departments of local government. Deffenbaugh [1] expresses the opinion, however, that:

> As long as education is considered a state and not a municipal function the schools will not become more subordinate to municipal government than they now are. The principle that school officials are state and not municipal officials have been so well established by law and court decisions that any efforts to make the schools a part of the municipal government would be considered by authorities on school administration as a step in the wrong direction.

It is very encouraging to school administrators to find that our states are quite determined that school issues shall be separated from other issues of politics and government. For the progress that has been made in assuring this separation, much credit is due to those school administrators who have constantly emphasized education as a state rather than as a local function, and have insisted upon such a type of local organization as would insure a maximum amount of independence of the schools.

As a sixth achievement in administration I desire to call attention to the increase in the effectiveness of the organization of boards of education. Deffenbaugh[1] finds a steady reduction in the number of standing committees of boards of education. He attributes this tendency to the reduction in the size of boards of education and to a clearer conception of the functions of boards. With the employment of more competent executives in our school systems, there has developed a tendency to make these officers the agents of the board in performing all of the chief functions except those of legislation.

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[1] Deffenbaugh, W. S. *Significant Movements in City School Systems.* Bulletin, 1929, No. 16. Federal Bureau of Education, p. 4.

One of the problems that has caused much discussion in recent years has arisen from the practise of making the superintendent responsible for the educational management of the schools and the business manager responsible for financial affairs. In some school systems these two officers occupy independent positions, and both are directly responsible to the board of education. School administrators are in substantial agreement on the principle that the business manager should be appointed on the recommendation of the superintendent of schools. This principle is based on the conviction that the person who is responsible for the educational management of the school should have responsibility for all work affecting instruction. It also appears that there is a dominant tendency toward the unit system of administration with the superintendent of schools as the chief officer and an assistant superintendent to have charge of business affairs. This plan certainly offers a logical solution of a problem which has caused much trouble in certain school systems.

The seventh achievement in administration may be defined as the employment in school systems of a larger number of technically trained specialists. The number of experts found in school systems has increased during the last few years because of a desire to bring expert service to bear on certain problems in education. Many of our school systems now have departments of psychology, of vocational guidance, of health, of curriculum building, and of special education, and there are other departments for new or technical types of work. As a result of this development, the school administrator has the assistance of highly trained specialists in solving certain problems in the field of education.

As an eighth achievement I want to call attention to the practise of framing policies in terms of the facts. A factual basis has been made possible through the work of bureaus of research in city school systems. It is no longer considered good practise for a school administrator to make snap judgments on important matters of policy. It has become an accepted policy for school administrators to require facts before making judgments. Thousands of dollars are being expended for the maintenance of research divisions. A recent inquiry [2] showed that bureaus of research are maintained in 108 of the cities of more than 30,000 population and in forty-six cities between 10,000 and 30,000 population. These research divisions have made possible a continuous selfsurvey. Frequently the selfsurveys are carried on with the counsel and advice of outside experts. In any case, it is no longer considered good practise to operate a school system without such analyses of operations as will give a factual basis for administration. The continuous selfsurvey of the school system has gained recognition as a necessary activity of the progressive school system.

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[1] Deffenbaugh, W. S. *Significant Movements in City School Systems.* Bulletin, 1929, No. 16. Federal Bureau of Education, p. 2.

[2] Facts furnished by Research Division of the National Education Association.

As a ninth achievement in administration I want to direct your attention to the increasing tendency of progressive school systems to define school programs in terms that will be clear and understandable to the public. The most efficient school administration has a definite program of objectives for the guidance of pupils, teachers, and the public. The importance of a clear definition of the program of a school system has created increased confidence, on the part of the public, in school administrators. A well-trained administrator does not attempt to administer the schools in terms of an indefinite and unorganized program.

As a tenth achievement in administration I point to the success with which administrators have met the demands placed upon the schools by the far-reaching economic and social changes since 1920. In the six years following 1920 public school enrolments increased by 3,000,000. More than half of this increase was in the high school. This great increase has called for the erection of many new buildings as well as a large increase in operating expenses. From 1920 to 1926 the value of school property increased from $2,400,000,000 to $4,675,000,000. The raising of the millions of dollars required by this tremendous capital outlay, as well as the expenditures of this vast sum, reflect great credit upon school administrators.

The remarkable extension of the opportunities of secondary education in the United States furnishes further evidence of the success of school administration. In 1920 only twenty-six percent of the total population of secondary-school age was to be found in the secondary schools. In 1926 this had increased to thirty-eight percent. In California, reports indicate that about seventy-five percent of the children of high school age are in school. Educational opportunities have been extended within the past few years by the establishment of new types of secondary schools. According to the last report of the U. S. Office of Education, 250 cities reported that they maintained partime and continuation schools, with approximately 300,000 pupils enroled; and 77 cities reported fulltime vocational schools, enroling some 45,000 pupils. The school administrators of America are in charge of one of the country's largest businesses when account is taken of capital outlay, expenditures for operation, and number of employees. This development constitutes a real achievement.

An eleventh achievement in administration may be defined as an increasing tendency upon the part of the public to look to school administrators for leadership in the solution of community problems. Communities are now looking to the superintendent of schools and to other administrative officers for help in solving local problems, especially those relating to the moral, social, and recreational life of the community. This development is in part the result of the wonderful opportunity created by luncheon clubs and other organizations for school administrators to participate in community affairs. I have sometimes wondered whether school administrators fully appreciate the splendid support they have been gaining for public education through the work of the luncheon clubs. Many a school administrator can testify that his connection with the luncheon club has enabled him to acquire a place of leadership in community affairs that otherwise would have been denied him.

As a twelfth achievement I would call your attention to the success with which school administrators have built strong and aggressive professional organizations. These organizations have been developed in most of the states. In the Department of Superintendence, school administrators have an organization that is exercising a powerful influence on American education and which offers an opportunity for a professional affiliation comparable to that enjoyed by the lawyer in the American Bar Association or the physician in the American Medical Association. A few years ago the National Education Association adopted the ideal, "a stabilized all-inclusive membership and the entire profession at work on its problems." Real progress has been made in putting this ideal into effect and much of the success must be attributed to the splendid leadership of school administrators. The Department of Superintendence is entitled to much praise for the work that it has done in stimulating studies in the field of the curriculum, supervision, school finance, articulation, and numerous other educational problems. It must be conceded that school administrators have in the last decade departed from the marked individualism of the earlier day and developed a splendid cooperative organization. As Joy Elmer Morgan said in a recent issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association,* "The superintendent holds a mighty responsibility. American life needs unity. The school system supplies that unity. The school system itself needs unity. The superintendent takes the lead in seeing that unity is achieved." I do not know of any achievement that is likely to mean more to American education in the future than the recognition by school administrators of their responsibility for furnishing real leadership in the teaching professions.

The twelve achievements mentioned in this paper do not cover all of the achievements in educational administration, but enough have been mentioned to give administrators a feeling of great pride in the profession. It is my prediction that if the next ten years show as marked progress in improvements in administration as these, a thoroughgoing modification will have been effected in many of the conditions as well as in many of the objectives of the American school system. I congratulate school administrators on the splendid achievements in their field.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION—THE SCHOOL PLANT

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During a period of seventeen years, the annual expenditures of capital outlay made by the school administrators of the country have increased tenfold—from $50,000,000 in 1913 to $500,000,000 in 1930. Something of the significance of this growth may be realized from the fact that at least one city may spend for school buildings in the year, 1930, twice as many dollars as all our communities combined appropriated for new buildings seventeen years ago. Constantly increasing enrolments, the expansion of curriculum offerings, and the extension of educational opportunities will tend to force even higher this annual expenditure for buildings. The congregation of population in urban centers bids fair to continue the demand for new schoolhouses. The recognition on the part of the public of the improvement in teaching and of the value of training will send children to school earlier and will keep them in school longer. The widespread acceptance of health and play programs as essential phases of the educative process will require more building facilities and equipment. The space demands of an awakened program of adult education are imminent. The junior college and the vocational education requirements must be met. Building funds for these purposes will become available. The American people have faith in education.

Augmenting the large sums spent to meet new educational requirements will be the amounts spent annually for replacement and rehabilitation of obsolescent and outworn buildings. The theory of equal opportunity has far-reaching consequences on plant development and expenditure. The superior facilities available to fortunate children in our best buildings are now sought by the parents of every child. Thus, of the construction of new school buildings, there will be no end. The school superintendent will spend more and more time on the school plant. His service will be measured by the adaptability of the buildings to future as well as present educational needs, by the service life of the structures, the possible degree of utilization, the reasonableness of unit costs, and the desirability and permanence of the buildings as community assets.

School administrators confronted with the problem of wisely expending millions of school building dollars annually have resorted to research and survey for evidence and assistance. The educational research agencies of the nation have furnished the principles, the technics, and the standards with which they have been able to meet the ever-growing responsibilities arising out of new plant needs. The result has been a most comprehensive change in the methods of planning and developing the school plant. Personal or political maneuvering in site selection has been supplanted by factual and statistical procedure. Uncontroled competitive architectural planning has given way to acceptable business practises. Financing new construction has advanced from questionable sinking fund and refunding policies to limited serial bonding or pay-as-you-go programs which assure complete payment by the proper generation.

In the progressive school system, no sum of money is expended today for capital outlay except as its expenditure is recognized as a part of a comprehensive school building program. Such a program plans in terms of future as well as present needs. Child and adult population growth, residential trends, transportation changes, traffic flow, industrial tendencies, zoning programs, and other important community developments are analyzed and reduced to statistical and graphic form. Standards of travel distance are set up in terms of local geography and climate. The optimum sizes of buildings for each part of the educational organization are determined. Standards of site size are fixed. Site selection is made without the bestowal of favor and with due reference to cost, environment, and acceptability for educational purposes. A building program has as its basis a comprehensive educational policy which has been approved by the board of education and accepted by the community. In many school systems the preparation and publication of the major steps in such a program have established public confidence in the administration.

The school executive has become increasingly alert to the necessity of raising the percent of the annual budget which may be devoted to the productive aspects of the enterprise which he supervises. Such non-productive costs as are incurred in the maintenance and operation of the plant should constantly be scrutinized. The small, antiquated school building, with its minimum of educational facilities, has proved to be costly to maintain and operate where any acceptable unit is the basis of calculation. The large school building has proved to be educationally more satisfactory; thus the building accommodating eight hundred to twelve hundred or more for elementary schools and even larger numbers for junior and senior high schools, has been widely accepted. Even where present conditions do not warrant the large structure, the building constructed is planned as a unit of what will be ultimately the large school.

A large building, or even the first unit of any school building, requires a large site. Five to six acres for elementary schools, ten to twelve acres for junior high schools, and twenty acres or more for senior high schools have become commonly acknowledged as the minimum standards for school site planning. Large sites are necessitated today by the increasing dangers of our streets, the constantly growing congestion of our cities, the absence of the "sand lot," and the recognition that play is an essential phase of the educational and social program. Statistics show that many cities represented in this audience have adopted these standards or have exceeded them. The school plant cannot be developed properly except as sites are selected in advance of utilization needs, when purchase costs are low. This would be the practical outlook in any other field of business and should become the accepted policy of the school administrator.

The building of a schoolhouse is a cooperative enterprise. Many people participate. It is no longer possible to turn the task over to an architect with the instructions to plan an eight, ten, or twelve-room building. Schoolboard and school superintendent must analyze and debate the planning and financial features. Superintendent, supervisors, and teachers must definitely project the educational need and reduce their desires to the typewritten statement. Architects and engineers must express this educational need in a design of beauty, of permanence, and of high utilization. Contractors and craftsmen must, with their skilled workmanship and devotion to their callings, weave together the specifications into a harmonious, weatherproof, and permanent structure. In many cities of the United States attractive schoolhouses, adequately planned to meet educational needs and paid for within the limitations of a financial program, are material evidences of the significant advance in school building planning which has resulted from these cooperative and professional relationships. Many of our school buildings of collegiate gothic, colonial, georgian, and mission design furnish adequate proof that schoolhouses may be beautiful and dignified as well as economical, useful, and practical. Notable and distinctive contributions have been made to the beauty of our cities through the architectural creation of the twentieth century American schoolhouse. Architectural beauty has been achieved in the face of rigid standards legally established.

A sacrifice of the lives of 173 children and two teachers in 1908 aroused our citizens to demand more adequate materials of construction for school buildings. These materials are no longer those which permit of rapid-burning nor tend toward flimsiness and high maintenance costs. Brick and stone, concrete and steel, terrazzo and tile now constitute the major materials out of which schoolhouses are constructed. The first emphasis today is upon safety. It is recognized that the parent who sends his child to school under state regulation is entitled to freedom from fear for the life of the child.

Safety and sanitation, health and physical requirements have played significant roles in altering the interior of schoolhouses. Safety has demanded that auditoriums be taken out of our attics and be placed on ground levels with a maximum number of exits. An enlightened theory of sanitation has drawn the pupil service facilities out of dark basements and provided them with improved equipment. New theories of health and play have brought the gymnasium out of the cellar so that children using it might have sunlight and fresh air. The industrial arts, household arts, and other special rooms have been given preferred locations instead of dimly lighted unsanitary basement quarters. Classrooms have been built in terms of standards of natural and artificial lighting, and of decoration and equipment which reduce to a minimum environmental interference with the educative process. Equipment standardization has resulted in a superior utilization of space and a better adaptability to educational need.

Commerce and industry have cooperated with the educator in providing high grade artificial lighting, have produced more effective and attractive equipment, and have made superior mechanical service systems available.

Hygiene, sanitation, economy and safety of operation have dictated the standards which have been developed successfully for the welfare of children into stone and glass, chromium and brass.

In today's buildings, the corridors and stairways conform to definite standards making possible ready exit and rapid circulation through the building. Waste spaces have been eliminated, dark unusable corners are no longer found, and every need of administration has been carefully provided for. The architect, in planning a schoolhouse, recognizes that the administrator may be confronted in the near future with the need for change in the space allocations, in the size of classes taught or in the methods of instruction which are employed.

He who plans a school building today must take full cognizance of the progress of science and the influence which new inventions or new vehicles of instruction may have upon future building utilization. The modern classroom is equipped, to be sure, with a loud speaker making contact possible with the outer world or the administrative center. The auditorium and assembly room provisions acknowledge the possibility of the sound picture as a medium of instruction, and the superintendent is on the alert to discover what changes television may necessitate. The school building is, therefore, planned as a changeable and elastic structure and is never approved except as significant additions may be made to the building itself and its major departments.

The school superintendent is also conscious of the fact that the nature of the purchase which a school community makes when it buys a school building is dependent upon the character of the plans drawn by the architect, the nature of the contracts set up for the business relationships established, and the accuracy and detail with which specifications are written. The superintendent of schools is no longer content with a *caveat emptor* method of purchasing school plans. This body of superintendents is interested in collaborating with the professional body of architects in defining clearly what a stipulated fee may be expected to produce with reference to the number and character of plans. The membership of this organization is also vitally interested in the character and legal form of the contracts which are necessitated by building operations. Superintendents of schools are anxious to set up safeguards which will eliminate in the plans and specifications for a building any need for guesswork or bulk estimates on the part of contractors who are bidding.

The extensive school building literature of the past two decades is evidence of the earnest effort of the school administrator to render the most effective service possible to his community in the development of its school building program and in the construction and planning of its school buildings. The school superintendent will not be content until there are available in the field of school building planning that research, that document, and that technic which will assist in the total elimination of any unnecessary cost in school buildings or any cost which does not bid fair to bring an adequate educational return.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION—PERSONNEL

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"Truly the eye cannot say unto the hand, I have no need of thee; nor again the head to the feet, I have no need of thee." [1] Good buildings, equipment, and teachers are in a way interdependent and each necessary if the best results are to be had in a school system, but of these the teacher is clearly of first importance. Given the finest of school buildings, the best of equipment, and a poor teacher, we have a poor school; whereas, it is altogether possible to have a good school in a barn where there is a good teacher. "Not all the books on all the shelves, but what the *teachers* are themselves," said Mark Hopkins.

It would, therefore, seem that whatever success has been achieved in the improvement of the personnel of our teaching corps may be taken as a somewhat accurate measure of "Achievements in American Education."

The contributing factors in selecting and maintaining an efficient teaching personnel are, first, scientific selection; second, careful placing; and third, conserving the teaching force by providing opportunities for growth inservice and by a sympathetic consideration of the teacher's happiness and welfare. The personnel of the teaching force of our public schools today numbers 927,000.[2]

The members of this Department of the National Education Association are in an increasing measure responsible for the selection and employment of this army of practically 1,000,000 teachers. How well the job has been done; what measurable improvements, if any, have been made; to what extent the problem has been approached in a practical, common-sense, yet scientific way, and what actually has been achieved are matters which we have for consideration at this time.

Business and industry have long faced the difficult problem of securing competent employees. They have felt the necessity of organizing and establishing personnel departments to recruit and wisely conserve their workmen. If this is expedient in industry where employees work with material products, how much more important in the public schools where employees are working with human beings—the men and women of tomorrow.

That appreciable progress has been made in improving the teacher personnel in American schools is evidenced by the fact that there is a more scientific selection of teachers today than formerly. Evidence of this is seen in the following: First, the certificating power is now quite generally vested in the state,[3] scholastic requirements for eligibility have been steadily raised, the minimum age increased,[4] and specialization made more extensive.[3] Second, in an increasing number of schools the responsibility of selecting the teaching force has been placed upon the superintendent, presumably the one best fitted to perform this task.[1] Standards are being raised by requiring each year a greater degree of professional training and by giving consideration to experience as well as to the health, personality, and general culture of the applicant.

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[1] 1 *Corinthians.* 12:21.

[2] National Education Association. *Journal,* March 1929, p. 88.

[3] United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1927, No. 19, p. 11-9.

[4] United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1911, No. 18, p. 226.
United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1927, No. 19, p. 278.

The public school teachers of a hundred years ago were chosen by the town council or by politicians, a custom, we regret to admit, still followed in some localities today. The guiding motives in the choice of teachers were: expedience, an occupation for poor widows or dependents; economy, the grave diggers and sextons had ample time for other occupations.[2] Unfitness for any occupation was at least one qualification of the public school teacher, or as Bernard Shaw puts it, "Those who can, do; those who cannot, teach."

Personnel selection has traveled far since the misfits of society taught the youth of the land. Today, the state in most instances has the first word in the selection of our teachers. This in itself is an improvement, for thirty years ago only three states granted certificates; today certificates are issued by thirty-six states.[3] In 1921 only four states required any professional training in addition to high-school graduation as a minimum for eligibility. Today more than half the states of the Union, twenty-seven in number, require this and more.[4]

Requirements in cities are higher still. For newly appointed teachers for the elementary schools in 1500 cities of America

77% now require 2 years beyond high school
10% now require 3 years beyond high school
1.1% now require 4 years beyond high school.

Most high-school teachers now are required to have four years of college work with professional training. The movement in the direction of requiring a master's degree for academic high-school teachers is pronounced. In 1928 there were forty-eight cities requiring five years training beyond high school for teachers in the senior high schools.[5]

Experience is another factor which is increasingly being demanded of the applicant for a teaching position.[6] Certificates of health are required in about half of the institutions for teacher training.[7] In 1927 fifteen states demanded proof of good health as one of the prerequisites for issuance of a certificate to teach.[8]

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[1] Lewis, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff.* Century Co. New York City.

[2] Cubberley, E. P. *History of Education.* Houghton Mifflin Co. Boston, 1920, p. 446.
Williams, R. H. "Teacher of Other Days" in *Education,* Vol. 23, p. 252.
Caldwell and Courtis, *Then and Now in Education.* World Book Co. Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1924, p. 23.

[3] United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1929, No. 17, p. 16.
United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1927, No. 19, p. 19, table 2.

[4] United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1927, No. 19, p. 16, table 1.

[5] National Education Association. *Research Bulletin,* Sept. 1928, Vol. VI, No. 4, p. 216, table 2.

[6] United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1927, No. 19, p. 280, table 10.
United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1929, No. 16, p. 6.

[7] United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1929, No. 17, p. 18.

[8] United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1927, No. 19, p. 278, table 9.

Examinations for certificates are being replaced by records from normal schools and teachers colleges.[1] Increasing specialization for both grade and high-school subjects marks a step forward.[2]

Greater stress than ever is being placed on personality, personal appearance, background, and culture.

There is evidence that much progress has been made in properly placing the teacher in the position best suited to his capabilities, and which will stimulate his interest and give greatest opportunity for growth inservice. This clearly is your job and mine.

Increased opportunities for growth inservice have been provided. Many forward steps have been taken in conserving and promoting the teacher, thus encouraging growth in professional spirit and a feeling of security and happiness. A large proportion of teachers are constantly adding to their knowledge through extension courses, by attendance at summer schools and conferences, and by membership in educational associations. Increased provision for leaves of absence for travel and study also offer unmistakable evidence of definite progress. In 1928 there were 282,068 or 31 percent of our teachers enroled in summer schools.[3] A large number of school systems now grant salary increase for summer school attendance.[4] An increasing number of teachers are taking advantage of extension courses, thus adding to their credits toward college degrees. More than seventy percent of our teachers are now enroled as members of their state education associations; whereas, the membership of the National Education Association now has passed the 200,000 mark.[5]

More than half the city schools (54 percent of 1532 cities) grant leave of absence for professional improvement and a small percent pay part of teacher's salary during leave.[6] All of these things increase the professional spirit and tend to lengthen the tenure of office which has now reached an average of eight or nine years.[7]

If in teacher personnel, as in shoes and clothing, one as a rule "gets what he pays for," the increase in salaries now paid teachers is further evidence of the improvement in the personnel of the teaching force. The average teacher's salary has more than doubled during the past decade; the increase ranges from slightly over $600 in 1918 to $1300 in 1928.[8] Even when the decreased purchasing power of the dollar is considered, cultural and professional improvement are now more nearly within the means of the teacher.

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[1] National Education Association. *Research Bulletin,* Sept. 1928, Vol. VI, No. 4, p. 222.

[2] United States Bureau of Education, *Bulletin,* 1929, No. 17, p. 17.

[3] National Education Association. *Research Bulletin,* Sept. 1928, Vol. VI, No. 4, p. 229.

[4] National Education Association. *Research Bulletin,* Sept. 1928, Vol. VI, No. 4, p. 230, table 8.

[5] National Education Association. *Journal,* March, 1930, p. 98.

[6] National Education Association. *Research Bulletin,* Sept. 1928, Vol. VI, No. 4, p. 225.

[7] Bagley, Wm. C. "Profession of Teaching in the United States." *School and Society,* Vol. 29, p. 104. January 26, 1929.

[8] United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin,* 1929, No. 17, p. 4.
National Education Association. *Journal,* April, 1928, chart p. 115.

Statewide pension systems are now in operation in approximately one-half of the states, and pension laws applicable to certain cities are found in nearly a dozen other states.[1]

By the improvement of personnel the schools have been able to render more efficient service for which the public has shown its appreciation by greatly increasing the revenue provided for operating the schools. In 1903 the total expended for public education in the United States was a quarter of a billion dollars; in ten years this amount had doubled to a half billion; seven years later it had doubled again to one billion; by 1926 it had doubled the third time to two billion dollars.[2] In 1928 the last figure available was $2,120,000,000, which was more than eight times the amount expended a quarter of a century earlier.[3] The enormously increased support for public education is an outstanding tendency which has a twofold meaning; it is the recognition by society of value received, and it affords abundant proof of the fundamental faith of humanity in its own progressive evolution. Increased support of education demands greater service in return by teachers and school administrators.

The best means of improving a school system, we repeat, is to improve the teachers. The acceptance of this truth, not only by an increasing number of school officials but by the public as well, is doing much to improve the teaching personnel in the schools of America. More and more teachers are being called upon to assume the leadership in the social and civic life of the community, the state, and the nation. It would be interesting to know how many of this group have served as presidents of Rotary, Kiwanis, or other similar organizations in their several communities.

Calvin Coolidge has said, "The earnest, conscientious men and women, running from the head of the great university down to the kindergarten, represent a force which is immeasurable. The influence which they create for better things, the inspiration which they give for higher ideals are the chief contributing force to the stability of society and the march of progress. They point the way to the dawn, they lead toward the morning, toward light, toward truth."

ACHIEVEMENTS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION—FINANCE

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The past quarter of a century has been an unusual period in financing American education. This period witnessed the Great War, and the regular school program, both of instruction and construction, was materially disturbed. Moreover, the results of the examination of our youth for the defense of country strikingly revealed the necessity for improving the physical welfare and the elimination of illiteracy among the young people of America.

Since the Great War the increased cost of public education has been one of the chief subjects for attack on the public schools. The most vigorous and most active organizations concerned with increased cost of schools are those especially organized to bring about tax reductions and retrenchment in public expenditures.

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[1] United States Bureau of Education. *Bulletin*, 1929, No. 27, p. 15.

[2] Department of Interior. *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education*, June, 1928, p. 2.

[3] Department of Interior. *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education*, June, 1929, p. 2.

Altogether too frequently these organizations charge up the increased cost of public education to the extravagance of school officials and boards of education. In my judgment, the increased cost of public education was largely inevitable, and hence beyond the power of school officials or boards of education to prevent. To prevent it, they would have had to possess the authority to maintain the purchasing power of the dollar at its prewar value; to persuade children to remain away from, rather than to enter, the public schools; to get along without any new school buildings; and to convince the patrons of the public schools that the 1910 model of our educational product was satisfactory to meet the demands of the year 1930.

The increased cost of public education has resulted from an extraordinary increase in school attendance and an unusual increase in the amount of schoolhouse construction, due to the cessation of construction during the period of the war, and a necessary and long-deferred increase in teachers' salaries, and to some extent an expansion of the educational program in the public schools. Underlying all of these is the fundamental economic fact of the reduced purchasing power of the dollar.

Reduced Value of the Dollar—The reduction in the purchasing power of a dollar has not only increased the gross cost of public education, but has likewise increased the cost of everything else that enters into the cost of living. Practically all indices of the value of a dollar agree that following 1890 the purchasing power of a dollar, disregarding the minor fluctuations, steadily depreciated. In 1920 it reached the lowest value in economic history. After 1920 the dollar regained a fraction of its purchasing power, but since 1921 has, except for minor fluctuations, remained practically on a level.

Increased Attendance—One of the most significant and most important reasons for the increased cost of public education lies in the extraordinary increase in attendance of pupils in the public schools. Between 1913 and 1927 the number of pupils in average daily attendance in elementary and secondary schools increased from 13,613,656 in 1913 to 20,200,000 (estimated) in 1927, an increase of 6,586,344 pupils, or 48.4 percent in fourteen years.

The significance of this increase is further emphasized by consideration of the fact that the total population in the United States increased during that period only 19,811,531 people, or an increase of 20.5 percent. In other words the increase in school attendance is more than twice as rapid as the increase in total population.

There is another striking and significant fact in connection with the matter of increased cost of public education and increased school attendance. The figures show that a large part of this increase in school attendance is to be found in the high schools. School attendance laws require pupils to attend the elementary schools, which group of pupils is increasing gradually, as is the population. The significant fact is that pupils are voluntarily continuing their education through the high schools.

This situation is significant for two reasons. First, it indicates public approval of the diversified educational program offered in the high schools of the nation, which in recent years is being substantially reorganized to meet the varying needs, capacities, and interests of boys and girls of secondary school age. This is a fine tribute to the wisdom of boards of education, school officials, and the parents of secondary school pupils.

The second significant fact is that high-school education is more expensive than elementary school education, and hence there is a correspondingly higher increase in the cost of public education than there would be if these pupils were enroled in our elementary schools.

Schoolhouse Construction—During the period of the war, permanent schoolhouse construction had to be deferred. Following the period of the war, many cities found themselves with a striking shortage of schoolhouse accommodations. Through bond issues or an increase in the tax rate, communities have undertaken to meet the shortage of schoolhouse accommodations through extensive building programs.

It has cost far more to construct school buildings since the war than it cost in the preceding generation, because labor, building materials, and equipment, in short everything that goes into a school building, have increased in cost during the past decade.

According to the United States Office of Education, "Capital outlays were costing about $7 per pupil in average daily attendance annually from 1916 to 1918. After that period these costs gradually increased to $21.86 in 1925 and then decreased in 1926 to $20.47, only $.17 above the 1924 level. Factors which may be expected to decrease capital outlays materially from year to year are: (1) the completion of building programs which had been delayed because of higher building costs, and (2) the reduction in the increase in the number of pupils in average daily attendance."

Teachers' Salaries—The largest item in most school budgets is for the salaries of teachers. Hence those who desire to reduce the cost of the schools usually begin with undertaking to show that teachers are paid too generously, in view of the conditions under which they work; namely, a short school day, only five days of the week, and not more than ten months of the calendar year. Such critics usually fail to consider the actual cash investment that teachers have made in their preparation for teaching, and the additional financial investments that they must make in further professional study if they are to keep abreast of the progress of the profession in the study of its problems.

The increase in compensation of teachers can be satisfactorily understood only in connection with consideration of the depreciation of the dollar. To make the purchasing power of teachers' salaries in 1927 equal to the purchasing power of their salaries in 1900 would have required salary increases of considerably more than 100 percent. For example, a teacher who was receiving a salary of $2000 in 1900 should have received a salary of $4481 in 1927 if the salary in 1927 was to have the same purchasing power as the $2000 salary in 1900. A superintendent of schools who was receiving

$10,000 in 1900 should have received $22,403 in 1927 if his salary was to represent the equivalent purchasing power. In the face of such evidence it cannot be argued that teachers' salaries have been increased too much, or that there is any reasonable possibility of reducing the budget for teachers' salaries.

A comparison of teachers' salaries with earnings and incomes of various groups of persons gainfully occupied in 1926 shows that the average salary of teachers, principals, and superintendents in the public schools of the country was $1275, which is only $75 more than the average salary of the lowest group of routine clerical employees working under supervision. The income of all persons gainfully employed averages $2010, showing that despite the increase in salaries of teachers, their average salaries are $735 less than the salaries of other gainfully occupied people.

The matter of teachers' salaries should not be considered wholly from the standpoint of their purchasing power. The public must recognize that an improved educational product from our schools is contingent upon providing better teachers; that better teachers will be provided only as the result of better training, and finally better training will necessitate higher compensation. The public has a right to as good teaching as it is willing to pay for. Boards of education and superintendents of schools cannot compel superior teachers to continue to teach for inferior salaries; neither can boards of education require extended professional training on the part of teachers unless the salary is sufficient to justify such training.

Not only are adequate salaries necessary to pay better-trained teachers, but they are necessary in order to prompt young men and young women of real natural ability to enter upon a course of professional training looking toward teaching as a life work.

Extensions and Developments—Because of public demand for an improved educational product, the public school systems of America are expanding and intensifying their educational programs.

Compulsory attendance laws—Today every state in the union is not only providing free public education, but is requiring young people to secure the fundamentals of an education. Massachusetts passed the first compulsory attendance law in 1852, and Mississippi, the last of the forty-eight states to pass such a law, did likewise in 1918. Compulsory attendance laws have been extended downward to the age of seven rather than eight, and have been extended upward most frequently to sixteen years and occasionally even to seventeen and eighteen years. This expansion of compulsory attendance of children has increased enormously the number of children to be cared for in the public schools.

Increased schooling—In 1900 the public schools of the nation were in session an average of one hundred forty-four days of the school year; whereas in 1928 the average number of days the schools were in session had been increased to one hundred seventy-two days, or an increase of nineteen percent.

From the standpoint of the amount of education the children received, the increase is still more striking. In 1900 each pupil enroled in the public schools of the United States attended school only approximately ninety-nine days of the school year, whereas in 1928 this attendance had increased to an average of one hundred forty school days, or an increase of forty-one percent.

Health—Because of the revelations of physical defects in the youth of America as shown in the physical examinations of recruits for the army in the Great War, public opinion has demanded an intensified program of physical education in the public schools. In addition to the previous limited instruction in physiology and hygiene and the former calisthenic exercises, medical inspection, dental clinics, and various forms of athletic contests for the purpose of developing healthy, vigorous bodies of the boys and girls have been introduced into the public schools.

Vocational arts—To manual training for boys and elementary cooking and sewing for girls have been added various prevocational and vocational courses in painting, printing, sheet metal work, automobile mechanics, electricity, and other subjects. Likewise the courses in stenography and typewriting have been supplemented by courses in salesmanship, in filing, in office practise, and in general secretarial work.

Fine arts—Similarly in the fine arts, the former limited work in vocal music has been extended to include formal instruction in instrumental music, which in turn leads to organized orchestral work. Freehand and mechanical drawing have been extended to include poster work, advertising, and other forms of the applications of art in the field of business.

Character training—Every thoughtful person realizes that the mere acquisition of knowledge is not so important as right habits of conduct and personal ideals, which form the basis of right action. Realizing this, the public schools in the last decade have given increasing attention to character training. Courses in citizenship and civics have been intensified, as well as elaborated, to the end that the public schools may more fully serve their fundamental purpose in a democracy, of providing adequate training for the individual responsibilities in a democratic social order.

All these extensions have been made to meet a public demand for an improved educational product.

Achievements in Finance—Among the achievements in financing education during the past twenty-five years may be enumerated certain definite accomplishments or well-defined tendencies.

1. A growing recognition of the state's responsibility for education and the establishment of larger units of financial support. This development has taken place in order that the wealth of the state, wherever located, may be drawn upon to provide equal educational opportunities for all the children in the state, wherever they reside.

2. A more adequate child accounting system and financial accounting system in local and state school systems. While much yet remains to be accomplished in the direction of uniform accounting in school matters, nevertheless substantial progress has been made looking toward that very desirable end.

3. Increase of financial authority of boards of education, independent of municipal and state authorities. This development is discussed by Dr. W. S. Deffenbaugh as follows:

> Authorities on city school administration are of the opinion that the city schools of the country should be managed by a board of education in no way dependent upon the city officials for funds, but by a board with large powers and with power to levy its school taxes or to prepare a budget within statutory limits, the amount of which must be appropriated from the city funds, and to expend the funds appropriated without consulting any other body.

4. A constantly increasing amount of professional attention to the problem of financing public education. Systematic studies of methods of financing education in states and municipalities have been made, as well as studies of the methods of distributing school funds.

What of the Future?—As the electric car succeeded the horse car, so the automobile and the auto bus are fast succeeding the electric car as a means of transportation. In time each may be succeeded by the airplane.

For the same reason and in the same manner, sloyd was succeeded by manual training, and manual training in turn is being succeeded in our schools by a great variety of practical trade subjects drawn directly from industrial and commercial activities.

In the evolution of the school system from an organization serving a special or limited group to an institution serving all classes of human society, the program of the public schools must inevitably expand as the activities of human life have expanded. The public school is a service station set up to administer to boys and girls in their progress from childhood through youth and into manhood and womanhood. The schools will render their full service only in case they are organized and conducted with a view of the varying needs of little children, boys and girls, and young men and women on their way to citizenship in a great country.

The public schools of America are organized and conducted by boards of education responsible to the people of their respective communities. Public opinion can effectively eliminate forthwith anything from the curriculum of the public schools of America that the people do not approve. It may, I think, be confidently asserted that the courses of study now offered in the public schools of the country are serving a worthy educational purpose, have the endorsement of the great body of the American people, and are not likely to be eliminated or greatly modified if fairly and squarely considered by the patrons of the schools.

The agitation about the high cost of public education is as inevitable as was the increased cost of education itself. The public believes in public education, not primarily for the special advantage of the few, but for all the children of all the people. The public schools today are the most potent, most powerful, and most promising single agency making for the unification, stability, and progress of our American institutions. Efforts to reduce the appropriations for public education are likely to fail, because efficient public education costs more money than formerly, because the people insist on increasingly efficient schools, and because the American people think more of their children and their proper education than they do of the amount of their bank accounts.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION—PUBLIC RELATIONS

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

Frank Ballou just said to me that by the time he was through I would have no audience. I told him that I knew that at the conclusion of his speech and at the end of mine, there would be a fine, small, select audience of friends and relatives to take part in the ceremonial obsequies which we are to perform over the remains of the past presidents of this department who are sitting behind me in a comatose state at the present time.

"You must not destroy the goose that lays the golden egg." That was the statement of a gentleman of national reputation to a group of school people in a midwestern state. Fortunately, some men in education have become students of economics as well of pedagogy and the question was immediately raised, How much does education do? How much has it done to hatch and feed and keep alive the goose that lays the golden egg of taxation in order to maintain the schools?

I think that the average business man, although he seems to be broad-minded in his attitude toward education, when it comes to the relationship of public education to the great institution of property, of wealth, usually seems to think that education makes its contribution to the wealth of the country by training artisans or workers or artists who are to go out and create wealth. To be sure, public school education is rendering an ever-increasingly greater contribution to the development of this Republic in the type of workmen that it turns out; but they overlook the fact that where we create one efficient workman, where we develop one artist, we create thousands and hundreds of thousands of pupils in the schools who go out with a basis of appreciation, with a desire to have certain things that the savage did not have, with a desire to understand the things that are made of beauty, of loveliness; that we are creating in the public school the greatest demand for the things that industry is making that was ever seen.

Much of the millions that are being expended in our papers in advertising is simply following in the wake of what the public school system has done throughout the great Republic, to create in the hearts and minds of the children of this Republic a demand for the things that are in the show window and on the shelves.

So I think it is time that we actively attempt, not in a dogmatic way, to show how much education has contributed to the hatching out of this goose, how much it is doing to feed that goose, how much it is doing toward preserving the life of that goose.

Out in the great midwest where most of our taxable wealth is in land, where really the villages and the towns are only in a relative way concerned with taxation as compared with the land, we have gone before our legislatures and said to these farmers, these land owners who speak as if they thought wealth was inherent in the soil, "What was this land worth when the Indian roamed over it and the buffalo galloped over it? It wasn't worth five cents a township. Whence came this value?" It may be purely imaginative, it would not square with the yardstick of the economist, but it came somewhat like this: Columbus with his three caravans crossed the unknown seas and planted upon the outposts of this great continent the cross of a great religion, and when that time came, every acre of land within the whole continent got a new value, not because the constituent elements of the soil had changed, not because the sunshine had varied, not because the rainfall or the elevation had changed, but because a symbol of a great ideal had come to open the door of this new continent to civilized men and women who would come and bring their families to this soil.

When in later years after the colonization the government extended its flag across the Alleghenies and the great arm of the government out over the Mississippi valley and the west, new stability came and new values came into the soil. When after the Revolutionary War the Revolutionary soldier wended his way down the Ohio River and out upon those great plains and said, "Here would be a good place to bring my wife, to rear my family, to work out a fortune for myself." When he drove down a stake and vowed that he would come and there build his home, his church, and his schoolhouse, every acre of ground within a radius of a thousand miles got a new value. There was no change in the constituent humus of the soil, no change in the sunshine, no change in the elevation or the rainfall, but a man with education, with his elemental desires transformed from that of a savage, had said that that would be his home. The savage was retreating, and the civilized man, who had the rod of science to strike the soils and make them lift up tons and tons of wheat and oats and corn toward the sky, and to create a market for the diversified products of the soil had come, and land had acquired a value because of civilization. Education had come to create the rod of science to make the elemental things of the land productive and to create a desire for the products that should come.

When the savage roamed over the country, there was no value in the raw things that go into building materials. They were here in vast extent from one ocean to the other, but the Indian, the savage, was sufficiently housed in his wigwam and when the filth became so great that he could no longer endure it, he picked up his wigwam and went to some other place. He created no market for the vast elemental stores of building materials here in the North American continent. When the civilized man, the educated man wanted a home with a spare bedroom and a bathroom; when he wanted that church with a spire piercing the sky; when he wanted school buildings; when he wanted great public buildings sanitary, well-lighted, well-built out of good materials; when civilized man, educated man, made this demand, then every running foot of lumber in the forest that had been there during the occupancy of the red men got a new value. Every ton of iron caught up within the mighty embrace of nature that had been there for eons got a new value. Every cubic yard of stone in the quarry got a new value. Why? Not because the chemical elements within them had changed, but because education had transformed the savage elemental emotions and reactions into civilized desires to create the market.

Take the matter of clothing. In every one of our states one source of our revenue is upon the elements that go into clothing, the raw material and the finished product. Savagery never created any market for clothing. Mr. Roosevelt in his African trails tells how once down on the Congo he took out of his trunk some various articles of clothing and threw them out to the black men, and he noted with a great deal of humor how they would take the most expensive things and make no sort of appropriate use out of them.

The savage never made a market for the kind of things that go into clothing; but when man, through education, got a desire not only to clothe his body to keep out the cold and protect it from the heat but to express some fancy, some emotional desire on his part, every acre of hemp stretching out under the sun got a new value, every sheep roaming the hillside got a new value in its fleece, every bale of cotton in the southern cotton fields got a new value. Why? Not because changes had come in these things themselves, but because through education man had come to demand and desire a new kind of clothing, a new expression of his inner fancy, a new satisfaction of these growing needs and desires which are the creatures of education.

The savage with his untutored mind could not live in large groups. It took education to build our great cities, to build our concrete streets, to lift our great skyscrapers up into the sky; and education had to tell the man in the large city where the orange and the lemon grew, where all the vast varieties of things to eat and to wear were to be found. It was education that tunnelled the mountains and bridged the streams and knit together the Atlantic and the Pacific and the uttermost borders of this Nation; for men had come to be educated so that they could live together. Whenever education proves to us that men are being educated into a situation such that they cannot live together, then I am ready to change a large part of this talk.

Another thing must be taken into consideration as a practical outcome of education. When we create a demand for things of beauty and of usefulness which must be made out of raw materials, we create a demand for muscles and nerves and brains to go out and transform raw materials into finished products. The cheapest thing in all God's world is a mere mass of flesh and bone and cartilaginous tissue, but when you transform nerve cells, when you transform muscles, when you transform emotions, when you train brains—then you create a valuable thing. A man, an educated man, who is just a little lower than the angels, has the power to think and the power to create raw materials into new forms, but perhaps the greatest thing that education has done in a practical way to take care of this institution of property is the safeguards that we have thrown about it.

Some fifteen years ago I had some investment in a copper mine down in Old Mexico. I went down into that territory. I went down because when I invested it cost something like $17 on the $100 stock, and in two years when I started down there, it was $3.50. I went down to find out what had become of the other dollars and what was likely to become of the remainder. I found out that only one child out of every 500 is educated, that bands of robbers ran over the mountains, and that what was property today was junk tomorrow.

You cannot create an institution of wealth and maintain it with an uneducated citizenry. Look at Russia, that nation of elemental genius, with a great dark substrata, and when the crisis came, the great pyramid turned over with a terrible turn.

If we are to have this institution of property secure, we must throw about it certain safeguards. What safeguards property? The laws at Washington, the laws at our state capitals do their part, but what safeguards property is the law that you as teachers are writing in the hearts and minds of the youth of this great Republic, in the hearts of the 24,000,000 boys and girls—that this is mine and this belongs to another, and if you would have this other person respect what is yours, you must respect what belongs to him.

In conclusion, I think as one of the practical relationships of public education we have to go out to our various legislatures and other groups and show them that as teachers we are not unmindful of the value of the goose that lays the golden egg, that we appreciate what that goose is doing, but we are not unmindful of the fact that education has done a vast deed to hatch her out, is doing a great deal to feed and safeguard her so that she may lay larger and better golden eggs to support public education.

SIXTY YEARS OF PROGRESS—1870-1930

Presentation of Past Presidents' Keys

President Cody: Coming from a family of showmen inspired the president to put the next act on the program. After looking at our past presidents and thinking of myself, I am persuaded that evolution is ever upward.

We have long sought this opportunity to honor the men who for sixty years have been leaders in American education, and as I call their names, I am going to ask them to step forward and receive the honors which they have justly earned.

I shall first introduce JOHN W. CARR, president, 1905-06. (Applause)
STRATTON D. BROOKS 1909-10. (Applause)
WILLIAM M. DAVIDSON, 1910-11. (Applause)
M. P. SHAWKEY, 1915-16. (Applause)
ERNEST C. HARTWELL, 1918-19. (Applause)
E. U. GRAFF, 1919-20 (Applause)
R. G. JONES, 1921-22. (Applause)
JOHN H. BEVERIDGE, 1922-23. (Applause)
PAYSON SMITH, 1923-24. (Applause)
FRANK W. BALLOU, 1925-26. (Applause)
RANDALL J. CONDON, 1926-27. (Applause)
JOSEPH M. GWINN, 1927-28. (Applause)
FRANK D. BOYNTON, 1928-29. (Applause)

We want you to notice what a perfect line.

. . . The keys were distributed by Secretary Shankland. . . .

THE USE OF LEISURE

HENRY SUZZALLO, DIRECTOR, NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

We Americans live in a work-driven world. The rest of the world has noticed it; and we are beginning to take note of it ourselves. We do not know just why we have gloried in this lopsided life. Our common talk seems to show that we have. We talk unduly about the day's work when the day's work is supposed to be over. Shop rules our minds.

We business men and others go to conventions, ostensibly on a serious errand which justifies us among our neighbors; but down in our own rebellious souls we know that we are really seeking change and recreation. We take a socially respectable half-vacation when our psychological need is for a whole and wholesome vacation that has no pretense of responsibility in it. Thus we veil our real motives to keep our social standing and our personal selfrespect.

Every American who is not yet a social rebel is afraid to be a man of leisure. It sounds too much like being an idler. It is associated with laziness and economic parasitism.

I wonder how we came to feel and act this way? Few of us know! And many do not care. Yet I think it will help to give us a new openness of mind toward our problem if we recognize how much the values of another day are ruling us.

Let me repeat that we often make no use of leisure, or a very poor use of it, because we are living up to the code of some dead ancestor, near or remote, who worked out a philosophy of life of his own, while we do not take the same liberty of fitting our working and living values to our own particular needs.

We need a code of our own for a life of our own. Hence it is necessary for us to look sharply at some traditional attitudes which have trickled down to us through many generations, handed on by father to son.

First, there is still among us that lingering touch of ascetism which filtered down from the Middle Ages. It makes us look a bit disdainfully on our bodies as though they were not worth serious attention as are our minds and souls. There is the thought, too, that a thrill of physical wellbeing is not altogether consistent with the good of our souls, and that to be happy in common human ways may not be completely conducive to goodness. More of us are caught in these tenacious attitudes than would dare to defend them by any rational argument.

Then, there are some conventions among highly respectable people, culturally and socially speaking, which are said to be mid-Victorian. Disregardful of the instincts and impulses of human kind, they are both repressive and narrowly selective in determining how people shall be permitted to enjoy themselves. The pleasures of the parlor are to them more respectable than those closer to earth and human nature. Worthy leisure is, by this pale highbrowism, to be confined to the upper stories of man's very human inheritance, to the polite and more or less subdued activities of mind and feeling.

But more influential with us are the attitudes of our own American social ancestors which pour over from the last generation or two into this one. The Puritan undervalued the recreational side of life and disdained it. Many merely playful activities were thought to be harmful. Later, we conceded they were harmless. Now, we know they could be positively helpful to mental wholesomeness. In addition, the Pioneer, by the unconscious pressure of frontier necessity, overvalued work and responsibility, and gave too exclusive attention to them. One disdained and the other forsook playful leisure as an important part of life. Both alike damaged the free spirit and omitted from the American living tradition a sanction for recreative playfulness. Both alike suffered somewhat from selfdeprivation. Their conditions of life, however, did not make the deprivation tragic. Our own life and time is so different that a taboo on leisure and the playful life is a definitely tragic thing, alike for the common man and the pillar of society. Of this we shall say more later.

It might be well to ask ourselves how life has changed for us from the day of our grandparents—not in its mere externals but in its impacts, repressions, and releases of the human instincts.

We were once largely an agricultural people. It was a life of hard, physical work—that is admitted. But it had its compensations. The work varied from season to season, if not from day to day. There was winter slackening if there was summer overworking. Many skills, judgments, and emotional reactions were called for in infinite variety. But man-at-work was still the master of his tools. And time had flexibility. Often it was a lonesome life. Man, the gregarious, suffered some. Woman suffered more. The country dweller was deprived of the best cultural institutions, which flowered most richly in great cities, but he had Nature which his city cousin had lost—skies, the blue hills, the countryside. Trying to command her in all her moods and fancies, his work was changeful and versatile. Life was not standardized or mechanical.

Since then, his children, in countless numbers, have gone to the cities to become urban dwellers, workers in shops and factories in an industrial, mechanized, and standardized age. Flexibility has gone from working time. The tasks are painfully alike from month to month, day to day, and hour to hour. Life lacks variety; monotony and boredom fill its place. More than half the nation's population is thus engaged.

Most of what invention and industrial organization has done for the farmer is, in human terms, clear gain. He and his family gain good roads, the automobile, the advantages of a nearer town. They have the telephone, the phonograph, and the radio. Some but not too many machines relieve him of sheer animal toil.

Much that has happened to increase the efficiency of urban industry is a clear psychological loss so far as human work is concerned. The machine governs the worker. He has become a machine-tender; he has ceased to be its master. The regular turning of a wheel times his reaction. Time for him has no flexibility, no variety. He does the same thing over and over again with a part of his wits. The rest of his powers are uncalled for and unemployed!

From this approximate description, you will realize that something has happened to man industrialized. It will explain why he was the first to get the short working day. The farmer's day has scarcely been shortened at all. The contrast has a psychological significance. The work of the factory which is easier on his body is less endurable to his mind, while the hard, physical toil of the pioneer farmer's life is more genial to mentality. Thus, to the city dweller and worker, garden and gentleman farming are leisure occupations.

All that man has and is by human nature is meant to be used. If a single capacity of man is overused, it is abused. If it is not used, underused, or underexpressed, it is also abused. The first leads to fatigue or monotony, the second to boredom or restlessness. Work under such conditions does not satisfy; man craves to stop and seek compensatory satisfaction. His wish to stop has given him a short working day—and incidentally the longest known daily leisure or freedom from work.

What then do we behold in great industrial cities? Bored, underexpressed, monotonized, restless men and women pour out of factories, office buildings, and shops at the end of the shortest working day, moving into the longest daily freetime the worker has ever known. He craves activity, engrossment of mind, enjoyment! He wants to play, which is the desire to let himself act directly or vicariously in genial, interesting, nonirritating ways.

Here is the problem of modern leisure!

A bored man will play! With normal, harmless, and even helpful expression repressed; without interest, capacity or training in the finer, stabler, joyous activities of life, he plays with the only feelingful things he has to play with—with instincts, appetites, passions. Commercialized sensuality, sensuousness, or sensationalism beckon him. Thus emerges the problem of the use of leisure.

At the other end from the workers are the pillars of society—the managers of the world's affairs or large units of it. They carry larger loads than before. They carry them on soft, sensitive nerves, not on hard muscles. Their decisions touch thousands of men. Theirs is a life of anxiety or apprehension. They break down with the load. Or they grow calloused of heart and imagination, a merciful defense-mechanism for the man himself; but for mankind whose destiny such leaders affect, it is an unpromising trait to have in high places. The work of these does not lack either variety or interest; but it carries an overload of strain. Such men need recreation and leisure to rest and refresh them. But the world hurries and pursues them with more work and gives them no free time. This, also, is the problem of leisure!

Common folk in between these two extremes also carry more loads upon their feeling life now. The king's responsibility and strain now fall upon the common man. In democracy we are all kings, responsible for the government and the commonwealth, for order, stability, and progress. This wears on the conscientious citizen. He has an increased sense of failure and defeat, less of a sense of effectiveness. Political interest wearies many and they drop their burdens. A new political indifference is the calloused defense-mechanism of less able men, in small but still responsible places. The loads fall more heavily on a few, who continue to bear them. Duty now frowns doubly on the morally able but with it comes a heavier anxiety to the sensitive and the responsive. Both types need rest, recreation, leisure, mental reconstruction. Without it, they cannot arise in the morning with a new thrill to slay the political dragons. Knightliness does not arise in fagged, discouraged men. Recreation is exactly what it means—recreation! Restored power! New power!

Our world beats on the humble citizen as never before. He lives in the whole big world, not in his little neighborhood alone. The telegraph, the telephone, the cable, the radio, the newspaper, the magazine, the wide distribution of books, fill his mind with everybody's troubles. All these are added to his own. Such a mind certainly needs free time away from a responsible vocation, a responsible citizenship, a responsible humanness. He is entitled to a leisure, full of happy activities which spontaneously interest him and leave him refreshed. It does not matter so much how much we wear down in eight hours of responsible wage earning work, and two more of responsible active citizenship if only we can rebuild in four of leisure and eight of sleep. But what if we are not given time to rebuild, to re-create? What then? What kind of a world shall we have if only tired, bored, discouraged men are in it? For society to grant a man leisure is not to confer a personal favor on the individual; it is to give safety, hopefulness, and progressive power to society.

Could we solve the problem of leisure, we should surely have the beginnings of a new kind of world, a more effective and happy one!

Some guiding principles may be suggested to bring it about.

First, let us give leisure, recreation, or free time for the individual as respectable a place in our scheme of life valuations as we give to work. They are supplements. As sleep and rest are to physical restoration, so recreation is to mental, emotional, and spiritual restoration.

Second, let the time conventions of life be arranged to protect the privacy of free time. The gogetters of American life should be warned off during our late afternoons, our evening hours, our Saturdays, our halfholidays, and our Holy days. Let us have the courage to snub these relentless men. Let us get over the shame of being caught idling or working in our gardens, listening to music, going fishing, or reading a good book. These matters are pressing human needs and while we are at them, we should put up a "busy sign"! Privacy needs to be restored as a human institution for many reasons, of which one is the need to restore our minds to wholesomeness through a leisurely pursuit of the things of heart's desire.

Third, let us not permit supplementary and coordinate aspects of wholesome human living to become rivals or competitors, each seeking to crowd the other out.

Wellused leisure is not a competitor of productive work. Its presence in life will outlaw the pathological slogans that "work is a curse" and "the less the better." Leisure is the humane life-partner of work. In the last analysis, it heightens the pleasure of doing something that needs to be done. It is the good recess that breaks into labor too long pursued, as work itself is another recess to play too long indulged. It is only our false traditions and our psychological ignorance which make us act as though these statements were not true. An unbalanced psychological ration is as bad for the mind as an unbalanced diet is for the body.

That bit of old wisdom which says that "all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy" is in terms of our new psychological wisdom, absolutely true. To begin with, it makes him a duller workman! Also, if he steals his pleasures, and they are likely to be the most forbidden ones, Jack becomes a poorer man and citizen, and somewhat of a social liability.

A true use of leisure never destroys the other important values of life; sanely perceived play or recreation should heighten all other values and processes. Right use of leisure makes us constructive, not destructive. It makes us more moral, not less so, more refined, not more gross; more eager workers, not less willing workmen.

Fourth, let us provide opportunity to train for a good use of leisure everywhere we can in life—at home, in the neighborhood, on the playground, in the school, in every institution that has an interest in wholesomeness. A boy or girl, a man or woman needs a broad exposure to know what fits his nature and his circumstance. Then he makes a wiser choice, one that is likely to endure for him.

We have only to observe those who have rebelled against the unnatural distortions of life and have let mere feeling guide them to pleasure, to know how fatally narrow an accidental choice may be. Our observations teach us that they are more likely to be wrecked than saved. What actually happens depends upon how natively intuitive or refined people are. Too often they shortchange themselves with sensuality, sensuousness, or mere sensationalism, the thrills of which do not endure, and which, like drugs, require larger dosages to bring renewed satisfaction. Such unfortunates have no sense of the higher types of play which delight without sad cost to the very last day of life. They had no chance to know. Society did not provide them opportunity to play with the more softspoken but more enduring satisfactions of life.

Fifth, let play opportunities be of every good kind. We need only to recognize that we are all that we are—body, mind, and soul. We cannot wisely leave any of them out of our work. Neither can we leave any of them out of our play.

Body, mind, and soul are inseparable partners for life. This is merely a way of saying that in our plan for the use of leisure and in the educational program which trains for leisure, we must be all-inclusive and quite tolerant of every wholesome, natural demand, whatever its emphasis. Each way of change, rest, play, or recreation has its place—walking, dancing, games of skill, the sports of the countryside, workmanship in the shop, lectures, sociability, drama, music, the movies and the talkies, the radio, reading good books, drawing, painting, singing, conversation, comradeship. Yes, even what other men call work may be my play. The great organ of life has many keys and many stops.

The things that may occupy our leisure spread from the one extreme of full, lusty, attention-engrossed, and active participation or expression, to the opposite one of a vicarious, imaginative appreciation which is almost passive and receptive. The great organ of life may be played from pianissimo to fortissimo.

Sixth, in whatever program we set up, let us educators profit by our rather long and somewhat sad experience in the intellectual field. Let us not repeat in the new field of recreation that tragic error of assuming that men and women, boys and girls, are all alike in their emotional and expressive needs. They were not in the field of cultural and practical training.

I fancy people are far more unlike emotionally than they are intellectually. Intellectuality has one long dimension, from idiocy to genius. Emotionality has fifty or a hundred dimensions running from almost-not-having-it to having-more-than-any-one-else. And it is largely with man's exciting, inciting, wearing emotions that the biggest jobs of our offtime life are to be found. Let the individual begin to solve the problem of his own use of leisure by fitting free time to himself and to the conditions of life as he is largely compelled to bear them. Leisure must be individualized.

Two almost inescapable factors make our needs different: the kind of a human nature we carry around with us and the particular kind of life we are compelled to lead.

Other questions will suggest more specific and suggestive clues. How do we have to live and work? Where do we get joys in these operations? Where are we bored? Overexcited? Worn? When do we feel the thrill of achievement or success? When the sense of bafflement or failure? Is there some enchanting activity outside our life which beckons us? Or two, or three of them? These are some of the questions that must be asked and answered in individualizing the program of leisure. Let the individual find his own enjoyment, remembering that the kind or kinds are best which satisfy the individual most and hurt his fellowman least. And no fellowman need have his feelings hurt by a difference of choice.

Then let me sympathetically warn teachers against their favorite habit of grading things. There is a kind of dignified disease we have; a kind of dignified highbrowism which suggests that a worthy leisure must be confined to the upper and the rarer stories of human endeavor. The errors of this pale highbrowism may be as pathetic in their unwholesomeness as the opposite primitivism of a lowbrowism engaged exclusively with the appetites and the senses. Both fail.

The gross error of the lowbrow is easier to correct for it is perceived with shock. The traditions of all civilization are against it. The less suspected error of the highbrow is encased in respectability. It afflicts the sensitive and the discriminating who are always trying to live up to what prestige-people declare to be the best. The sedentary mind worker may most require plain, primitive, physical romping. It will probably do him more good than some of the more anaemic entertainments, which merely again over-exercise, in a new way, what is already overworked, instead of exercising or expressing those natural impulses of the human organism which too long neglected foster a mysterious restlessness that is like a mental toxin loose in the soul.

There is another kind of tyranny in recreation which is caught rather than imposed. Too often we take our pleasures in the way that "everyone is doing it." This prescription is good for a trial or experimental taste but it seldom rests on a good personal diagnosis. Our leisure activities are already too faddistic and fashionable. Just when we grow to like something immensely and begin to get a great deal of fun out of it, the style changes and leaves us bereft of our joy. Our leisure, unlike our clothes, cannot be subjected to the constant changes of fashion and the crowd's whims. Once more we must be reminded that the most buoyant and useful recreations are highly individualized. The fact of a mob-companionship or a wide current prestige will not compensate for the secondrate appeal to us of a transiently dominant game or activity. We have to have our fun for ourselves. The joy that others are getting in our presence is not so contagious as we would like to think. Let us find our own joys and keep them regardless of what other folk are doing. There is no wiser injunction.

I have said that facilities should abound everywhere. This means that recreation should be in the program of adult education as in that of schools for youth. The chance to learn to play or to change one's kind of play at different levels of life is important. Most children play. Most men in middle life do not. And the man who is retired in old age is the most pathetically playless object I know.

Being old is not being old in years but it truly is leaving behind or losing the spirit of youth. The spirit of youth is eventually one of venturesomeness and success, curiosity and playfulness, wholeheartedness in doing things and freedom from too much responsibility, anxiety, and strain. A good recreative life provides the opportunity through which each of these qualities may be invoked and heightened. Middle age, the most active and responsible period of life, needs the repairs these leisure states of mind bring and the energy releases they provide. Even old age, with its weakened body, may take on new happiness and usefulness if empty time can be filled interestingly so as to restore color and quality to the life of the mind.

THE ANTICIPATION OF FUTURE NEEDS

HONORABLE RAY LYMAN WILBUR, SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

J. Cayce Morrison, presiding: Some months ago at the beginning of a new administration when the public press carried the word throughout the land that the President of Stanford University would accept a portfolio in the President's Cabinet, there was a thrill of satisfaction running through the mind of every school man and woman in this land. Today, after a very brief period, we feel a debt of gratitude to the Secretary of the Interior for lifting the office of the Commissioner of Education to a higher status than it has ever held before. We are even more grateful to him for helping center the attention of the nation upon the question of child welfare, because as Phillips Brooks once said so ably and effectively, if you want to do a man a good turn, do it to him while he is a boy, for he has so much longer to profit therefrom.

So today we welcome the Secretary of the Interior in his own right and as a personal friend and lifelong friend of the President of the United States, welcome him not alone for what he has contributed to our profession through his life work as student, teacher, dean, and president, and through his more immediate effectiveness as Secretary of the Interior, we welcome him as a man intimate in the profession, a leader among us.

Secretary Wilbur: If we think of looking into the future, we can perhaps best see some of the prospects before us by taking a look back. We need not go far, say fifty years. If we try to encompass all that has been accomplished through the training of man, through study and research, in the last fifty years, and if we try to add to that the discoveries that have been brought into service in our civilization, we are almost conscious of a sense of shock as we look ahead wondering what the next fifty years will bring.

I need not enumerate the changes that have taken place. You, in your own lifetime, have been conscious of most of them. There is a tendency on the part of all to consider things as somewhat finished at the point where we are today. I know that when I studied history as a boy, I was greatly surprised to find a picture of the President of the United States then in office in my history book. History seemed to be something that had gone before, and to realize that history was in the making and that mankind was on the move was a new conception to me as a boy. But we must think of our advance and progress as that of a steady-flowing stream. There is one unit carried forward on that stream that has comparatively little chance for change. That unit is the human being. We can change his environment, as we have done it, but how much can we change him? Think for a minute of our great athletic program, of all that we do in America for the youth for the land in that direction, and yet no one could say that we have developed any stronger man than Sampson, any greater runners than those of the Marathon. We have not pushed the human body forward to any great degree; and when we consider the mind of man, certainly we cannot claim that we have any very great advantage over Solomon in the matter of wisdom, or that any greater philosophers have developed than came up among the Greeks, or that any greater moral leaders have appeared than those of ages gone by.

Christ developed in an atmosphere that we would consider almost abhorrent in our modern sanitary civilization, and yet he brought out a method of living, a philosophy, a moral code, that has never been exceeded and that is still the best guide we have.

We must face the fact that we ourselves have molded our environment but that as individuals we are not capable of changing ourselves so very much in our capacities or in our abilities. The only thing we have done, it appears, is in the nature of mass action. We have given much wider scope and training to great masses of men in all parts of the world. Instead of the favored few, we now have in such a democracy as ours the favored many. We offer them all whatever opportunities they need to go forward in selfadvancement. The limits of our universe are set by the limits of the human mind. We break down the barriers that surround us constantly with new ideas and new truths. With the microscope, the telescope, the test tube, and all the other appurtenances of the laboratory we have opened up new zones in which the human mind can entertain itself and in which it can bring about advancement.

Did you ever stop to think that it would have been just as easy for Cæsar to have provided the opportunity for his army surgeons to see the broken bones of his soldiers as we have provided it for our army today. The only thing that he lacked was a man like Roentgen who could bring together the proper contrivances of glass, steel, wire, and chemicals of vacuum to make the X-ray possible, for it has always been in the world; the X-ray was always here. He simply made it useful and usable.

So we could treat all of these inventions. We could show that Solomon could have had his temple lighted with electricity if Edison had come before Solomon's time. The universal laws that control us all, that are here about us, do not change. We discover them and our success in handling our environment depends entirely upon our capacity to use these laws and to get in harmony with them. We can in no way defy them with success.

We have stumbled along in the history of the race, multiplying in numbers, gradually covering this great globe upon which we are living, until there are more of us today than ever before, and more are coming, largely because of our capacity to develop and increase our food supply.

Along with this increase in numbers and in knowledge there has been the development of certain kinds of governmental procedures. The king is passing off the stage. The democracy, with its leadership of various sorts, is taking his place. At the present time there are three great groups of continental peoples struggling forward with somewhat different ideals and ideas.

We represent—combined with Canada—a continent more or less unified with certain ideals, standards, methods, and wealth, going forward trying to work out democracy along one line. Russia, with its control of a great continental area involving large parts of both Asia and Europe, is another. There they are trying to work out a program on somewhat different lines. In fact, one of the great contests in the world today is to determine which method works the best with human beings, ours or theirs. Another great group is watching that contest. This is China, with its hundreds of millions of people just coming out from under the clouds of superstition, with shifting standards in every direction, and wondering which is the method, that of the United States and Canada or that of Russia, for the development of these great masses of human beings as they seek for more power, more happiness.

We must think in large terms as we view these questions. We must be conscious of our own individual limitations, conscious of the universal laws that control us, and critical and careful of the things that we do, for we are now in the age of science and democracy. Science! Think what science has brought to us in the domain of public health, personality, and welfare, in the domain of industry, and in the whole series of service that it renders.

Then think of democracy and its spread over the world at the present time. The great question for the educators is, can we harmonize science and democracy? Democracy goes by majority rule in one form or in another. It makes decisions through individuals and at the ballot box. A majority decides that one course or another should be carried out, but the decisions of a majority in democracy have no weight in science. Science has no majority rule. Science has only one rule—the truth and the universal laws controling this universe.

How can we harmonize these two? Sometimes we get rather grotesque attempts to bring harmony about. I remember a law which was presented to one of our state legislatures. In fact it passed one of the branches of the legislature. It told in fine legal terms just what symptoms a tubercular cow should have. There was the law ready for the governor to sign telling just what the cow should do when infected by the bacillus of tuberculosis. It was a splendid law in appearance, but it had two defects. First, it was difficult to get its import over to the cow. Second, it was even more difficult to get it over to the tubercle bacillus. Yet, those living forces, the cow and the tubercle bacillus, determine the symptoms regardless of any legislature or governor or majority decision. You can legislate your heads off but you cannot change the laws of physics in regard to a single little drop of water. You can legislate that a drop of water put on a red hot stove shall stay round. It doesn't; it goes into steam and there is nothing that can be done about it by any human being. That is the problem we face. How can we harmonize science in use everywhere with democracy spreading over the world? I look at it as the greatest question before the educators. There is a place for political decisions. We are watching right now in our own country the attempt to settle great series of problems by majority vote and legislation that cannot be settled that way. They can only be settled by the expert, not by the voter, not by the representatives, if they are to be settled right.

There is a zone in which we can operate our democracy but there are many zones in which democracy cannot operate except through the expert and the problem of the educator is to take the expert in with democracy. Out of that combination will come success, and a failure to bring about that combination means failure for us all, because we are so large in the mass that if we make mistakes, they are mass mistakes, and as such they can be more damaging than ever before in the history of man, at least in volume.

The expert is trained by the experimental method. The experimental method is to try to find out, knowing that if the truth is touched, anyone else going through the process can touch it again. It always acts the same way. Electricity does not change its rules with the changes in political administration. It goes on just the same. Nor can the experts that control electricity change their methods in handling electricity because of a change in political administration, and yet electricity, steam, and all these various things are the forces under which and through which we are building up our civilization.

At the same time we are learning through science more and more about ourselves. I need not review here the great advances that have been made in public and personal health for you know how one by one, through the skill, patience, and curiosity of specially trained men, we have been able to drive out certain diseases. We know more about nutrition, and about the care of our young, but in this process of developing all of these procedures we are at the same time developing a new shell for ourselves. That shell is made up of steel, concrete, pavement, wires, artificial ventilation, and artificial lighting that keeps us up at night—a whole series of new things in our environment. In fact, we are in danger of becoming mere menagerie animals, caged, captured by ourselves, if we are not careful; for we drive out of this environment the trees, the flowers, the birds, the grass, the open spaces, the things that have always made life and happiness for the human being; and if we make ourselves mere menagerie animals, no matter how well we may understand nutrition, no matter how well we may handle ourselves under such conditions, trouble follows. You know what happens to the menagerie animal. It does not breed well, it has little vigor, it has too much leisure, it loafs, it wastes time, it gets fat, it is no good in the long run, in biological processes, and that is the thing we face. Are we going to become useless through the very environment we build up? Are we going to be crushed by our own machine? Are these concrete walls and these steel girders coming down on us? That is the question that we must face as educators. What are we going to do to meet these issues? Personality is the greatest thing we have, but in the mass, with democracy, with the controls of science, personality has a more difficult time to bring itself forward.

In the mass as we educate these great groups, taking in everybody, personality is pushed down in the picture more and more, and yet we must seek for personality; we must seek for genius, or the leadership from the expert that I spoke of a few moments ago may fail us.

We must segregate from these rising tides of masses going to our high schools those capable of going further to good advantage. Democracy does not mean that everybody has an equal brain and equal body. They only have an equal chance, and so we have to think in terms of selection, of segregation, if you please, of human qualities, as we go forward in this process, or we may lose the whole thing in the mass.

How are we going to find, control, and develop these personalities? What is personality? We hardly know. We know it when we see it, and we also know that it is getting more difficult for personality to express itself except in the old ways of a beautiful piece of sculpture, a picture, a poem, a song, or a piece of literature. It is more difficult to have personality inject itself into our political life. The facts, the rules that we have discovered have become so predominant that personality must often mold itself to these conditions. So we must struggle all of the time to see what we can do for the dignity of the human being as such for his betterment.

One of the most interesting experiments in the American school system since its very inception has been to determine how to keep religion out and get character development in. We have kept religion out on the political basis. Our substitutes, though, some think, have not been satisfactory. There is a great deal of discussion about just what religion is and all of that, but when there are the opportunities to follow great moral leaders, and because what those moral leaders have presented comes to us in the form of religion, it is kept out of the schools. We have to get some substitutes. Are we succeeding with it? Is not that one of the big questions before us in this age of science and democracy? Are we keeping personality and character development in as we go on with the training of our youth?

We have to be very careful not to become the prey of superstition, savagery, and prejudice. The easiest thing we turn on is prejudice. You can turn it on when somebody of a different race or city comes along. Prejudice is turned on like a flash of electricity in the presence of other things. It is so easy to turn prejudice on, and yet when you turn it on, you join the crowd; you are no longer thinking; you are simply an emotional being; your intellect has stopped. Yet in the world this turning on of prejudices controls great elections and the relationships of nations.

What are we going to do about such matters? What are we going to do about superstition? It is around us everywhere. I think we need to take the attitude of the colored mule driver who said, "When I has anything to say to a mule, I says it to his face." We need to look this thing in the face and realize that these superstitions and prejudices play a large part in the things that we do. They are inculcated in our lives in subtle ways. You can visit, as I have, the home of a university president. As you ride along in the automobile to his home, something is said about new tires, and his wife says, "We haven't had a puncture for six months," and looks around to find wood to knock on. She could just as well have put her hand up to her head.

It is in our thinking; it is an undercurrent, and it is very important for us to cut that out of the child's development as a personality. We cannot wisely, in this age, determine what we do through superstition or through prejudice if we are to have safety in our relationship to the great universal laws that control us.

What about the future of education in such a democracy as this? I wonder if we ever have looked ourselves and education squarely in the face to find out whether our methods are all that they might be. At any rate, when we tried our methods of education upon the American Indian, I think we made a colossal fizzle of it. We have been at it for fifty years, and if the Indian has improved under educational procedures, it is hard for a new Secretary of the Interior to find out.

We failed to adapt what we had. What did we do in the Philippines? We took our kind of education, gave it a little Spanish flavor, a little tabasco sauce, and put it into the mind of the Filipino. It has made a fine politician out of him, but how good a prospective citizen of the Philippine Islands?

If these things are true, and I think they are in a certain measure, how are we succeeding in the things that we are doing with the American boy and girl? How much have we analyzed our job? How much time are we wasting? You know, as well as I, that you pace the American schools at the left of the lower half, instead of pacing them in the upper twenty-five percent at least, and then taking those who cannot maintain this pace and putting them where they can do work such as is given them and be happy. We keep in our schools and universities a large percent of students who are unhappy, unsatisfied, unproductive, and not doing their work because it is not in tune with their mental capacities. We know this, but there is some absurd superstition that democracy means they must all do the same thing.

Segregation of ability is one of our responsibilities. Then what shall our method be? Shall it be the same as we have had in the past? We are making a little attempt now to see whether we are as smart as the Chinese. The Chinese have set up a mass education program to cure illiteracy in China. They have worked out a simple system whereby for a comparatively few cents they can teach an illiterate adult to read a simple newspaper that probably has more in it than anyone needs to read. Can we do the same thing here if we want to for our adult illiterates? That is one of the things we are trying to see, whether perhaps there are not methods we can apply that can stimulate ambition and desire so that, with just a little light, more will be sought.

I think there are methods that can be discovered that will help us there and that some of them can well go into the school system. Our trouble is that when we once build a machine we like to operate it. We build the school machine and then we like to operate it. When I went in as a young university president and suggested some change in a machine that was only twenty-odd years old, some of the older members of the faculty looked on me more as a curse or blight than as a help. I was going to change something that they had built up. Most of us as we grow older become fearful of change.

Walter Camp, a great coach, once said to me, "The other day I was standing on the sidelines where my son was playing in the same position that I used to play in the football team. I saw him come charging down toward me with the ball under his arm and three great big fellows running out to grab him. I just shivered. Then I realized that that boy was having the time of his life such as I did at his age. He was crashing forward. He wanted to strike these people and get just as much distance forward as he could, and I knew that my bones were old. That is why I was fearful."

In our educational system we put in the struts and the supports, and then many people spend all their time watching them to see that no one takes them out or substitutes any others. The educational machine isn't really a machine. It is a flow of forces constantly changing, new people, new children, new ideas, always on the move. The one thing that it must not do is crystallize; for if it crystallizes, then democracy with its education gets out of tune with science.

Have we enough in the way of knowledge and understanding and elasticity so that we can go forward into the future with comfort and safety? One of our great aims in education has been to groove the mind of the youth so that the old currents would flow along through that mind, percolating out perhaps more or less from those main currents. Tradition is the thing we have talked about and insisted on, and the college undergraduate catches it from us until he is worse about it than we are, and yet we don't know what is coming in the next fifty years. We look back at the last fifty. We see that the boys and girls of today must have the most elastic minds imaginable if they are to meet with safety the problems of the world.

We should seek for an educational training, not specific things so much, but an adaptable training, adaptable to the individual for the development of his personality, and we should protect his mind so that it will not become grooved but will remain plastic; put out of it the superstition and the prejudice that is such a blighting force and bring in the opportunity for growth so that growth will go forward as long as is possible in the development of the individual.

Nature, with its processes of developing changes in the blood vessels, will develop senility soon enough. We have to do what we can to prevent presenility by the educational procedures that we adopt. The basis of our advance in research, new things, new ideas, the degree of achievement that we make, will depend upon how many minds are turned loose to bring us new information.

I say to you that if we, with this combination of democracy and science, are to win, the educator must be ever alert to see that those whom he trains keep personality, develop character, keep openminded, avoid superstitions. Only in that way can we go forward with this political machine of ours, now creaking and grinding, trying to solve things politically that cannot be determined in that way. This great machine of ours may go down with a crash without that kind of leadership.

Chairman Morrison: Secretary Wilbur, in the early part of his address, pointed out the difficulty of getting a certain scientific principle across to the cow and to the bacillus. I thought he was going to add the third party, the legislature.

On behalf of the two organizations here, the thousands of you assembled and the thousands of others who have listened in, Secretary Wilbur, we thank you for taking this time out of your busy days to give us this proof of your interest and this vision of our future.

PRESENTATION TO DR. ALBERT EDWARD WINSHIP

Chairman Morrison: It is now my privilege to turn the meeting over for a moment to my chief, the President of the Department of Superintendence, who has a very genuine surprise in store for you. Mr. Cody.

President Cody: It is a rare privilege at this time to perform a very pleasant duty. For sixty-five years one of our best known men has labored in the cause of education. He is your friend; he is my friend. For fifty-eight years he has attended meetings of this Department. So by order of the executive committee of this Association, and I know by your unanimous wish, it is my pleasure at this time to confer upon Dr. Winship an honorary life membership in the Department of Superintendence. Dr. Winship! (The audience arose and applauded).

Dr. Winship: The most popular man in the new world today is popular for what he does not say. Thank you.

PRESENTATION TO CORA WILSON STEWART

President Cody: At this time it is my pleasure to present Miss McSkimmon, former president of the National Education Association. She will speak for herself.

Miss McSkimmon: Through the courtesy of the President of this Department, I am enabled to do a piece of work assigned to me by one of the organizations of this Department, the Administrative Women in Education, of which Miss Olive Jones is the president. It is my duty at this time to recognize the nationwide service that has been performed and is continuing to be performed by the lady to whom her association is awarding the Ella Flagg Young medal for distinguished service in education, Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart. At this time, Mrs. Stewart is the executive secretary of the Illiteracy Commission appointed both by the President of the United States and by Secretary Wilbur.

It has not been unknown to everyone in this organization that the real spirit underlying our educational growth in the dark quarters of our land was led years ago by Mrs. Stewart, who taught us all that the people may be reached if we get after our problem in the way that meets their need. I am sure that no one who heard Mrs. Stewart years ago in the old Lowell Building in the city of Boston has ever forgotten the picture of those people, old and worn in the battle of life, many of them, coming with lantern in hand over the rough paths at night to the little schoolhouse where they might learn the blessed gift of reading.

Mrs. Stewart's spirit and example are living and will live in this land today. It was one of our own poets who said to us in words so simple that they come back to us from our childhood—

Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,
Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,
Our hearts in glad surprise
To higher levels rise.

The lady with a lamp shall stand
In all the annals of our land,
And noble hope of good,
Heroic womanhood.

I have the honor, Mrs. Stewart, to present to you, in the name of my organization, this medal. (Applause)

Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart: I can think of nothing that would strengthen the heart more or give more comfort than to have the approval of the members of one's own profession, and to have this testimonial of approval from the women leaders of one's profession is to a woman a peculiarly sacred and satisfying thing.

In making this award, the National Council of Administrative Women in Education was not influenced by any merit of my own, I am sure, and they had no thought of the personality. This is a recognition of a great cause. I have been chosen this morning as the symbol of that cause and as the representative of thousands of educators and citizens who have rendered valiant service in the fight to rid our nation of illiteracy. In behalf of that cause and of my comrades and myself, I humbly thank the National Council of Administrative Women. We shall take this not as an award only, but as a commission, as a mandate to carry on, for we have made only a beginning. We take this as a mandate from the National Council of Administrative Women to carry on in this fight against illiteracy to the finish until the victory is won. I thank you.

EDUCATIONAL ADVANCE THROUGH RESEARCH

A. J. STODDARD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

In an address before the Walter Hines Page School of International Relations at Johns Hopkins University in 1925, Mr. Owen D. Young said:

> We desire to outlaw war. Not so long ago we desired to outlaw the yellow fever. We desired to outlaw typhoid. We desired to outlaw diphtheria. We desired to shake off the enervating shackles of the hookworm. . . . How was it accomplished? You all know the dramatic story. The patient research worker in his laboratory,

> seeking facts, building theories and testing them by experiments, showing not only devotion to his work, but frequently a selfsacrifice which led to his death, came through victor. . . . So with war. It is not enough to have government departments of administration. It is not enough to have an industry of foreign relations. We must supply a science, a systematic body of things known, if we desire to make our aspirations for peace effective. But again, someone will inquire whether research or science, in the sense in which I am using them, can be advantageously applied to this field. My answer is that facts can be applied in any field. Our curse is ignorance. Facts are our scarcest raw material. This is shown by the economy with which we use them. One has to dig deep for them, because they are as difficult to get as they are precious to have.

One line of work after another has yielded to the scientific method of treatment, but education, being one of the most difficult to measure and appraise, was slow in adopting research. Many educational policies and procedures are still determined by intuition and rule-of-thumb methods. But there has been a very rapid tendency in recent years toward supplanting guesswork and opinion, as the basis of judgment, with the accurate and thorough collection, organization, and interpretation of facts. Approximately one-third of all our cities between fifty thousand and one hundred thousand in population now maintain research departments in their public school organizations, while this proportion increases to seventy percent in the larger cities. When it is considered that the first city school research departments were established less than twenty years ago, the trend becomes very significant. The development of the use of educational research has been correspondingly great in the colleges and universities. The whole movement has received effective encouragement and support from several great foundations, voluntary organizations, potent publications, and the National Education Association.

Despite the enormous progress that has been made, in recent years, in the application of research to the problems of education, the movement is but in its infancy as compared with the use made of research in commerce, business, and industry. During the present school year the cities in the United States with populations in excess of fifty thousand will spend approximately a million dollars for all phases of public school research, or about one-sixth of one percent of their total budgets. During the same period two of our great industries will together spend more than forty times as much for research as the total of the 133 largest city school systems.

Brokerage firms advise their clients to make sure that an institution is keenly alive to the importance of scientific research before investing in its securities. Banks will not lend as readily to an institution if there is no attempt to keep up with the developments of science, or a little in advance of them. Therefore, it is but natural that, as the amount expended for education increases, the investing public should demand not only that the existing methods and procedures be carefully appraised, but also that plans for further progress be based on the results of research. Inefficiency and waste in the business world are gradually eliminated through competition and the necessity for producing material dividends. As competition is eliminated in any field, whether it be by a great telephone company or in public education, the responsibility for the application of research is definitely increased. Inefficiency and waste in education affect a dividend that is spiritual rather than material and result in an irreparable loss to the individual and to society in general. It is not likely that the American people will refuse adequate support for public education if they are convinced that the money is efficiently expended for objectives that have been proved scientifically sound.

There is still much confusion as to the meaning associated with the term "educational research." *The School Review* of September, 1926, makes this editorial comment:

> Would it not be well for those who have undertaken to foster research to begin drawing a distinction between different types of contributions to educational literature? There are good articles on the content of courses; there are good articles on administrative devices. Should these not be listed as articles worth reading but containing no research? Would it not promote true, scientific work to reserve the title "research" for publications which contribute to the understanding of fundamental principles?

The editor of *The School of Education Record* of the University of North Daokta says:

> The work of some men is genuine research; but, where you find one such piece of work, you will find thousands and thousands of mediocre students who are kept busy collecting and collating, in small puttering ways and sometimes with the scissors, work that is passed off and palmed off in ponderous theses as "research."

Someone else has said that "research is trying to find out for the hundredth time what every one knows and then expressing it in language which nobody understands." These opinions are not offered for acceptance, but as an indication of the protest against the looseness with which research is regarded by some writers and administrators. The dictionary definition of the word stresses a diligent investigation or search for facts or principles—an intensive, purposeful search for truth. Dr. Walter S. Monroe, in the University of Illinois *Bulletin No. 42,* defines research as "the process of conscious, premeditated inquiry for the purpose of making additions to our stock of present knowledge or of discovering new bases of knowledge." He further refines the concept of educational research by stating that it should be "carried on by the process of critical, reflective thinking."

Such research thinking naturally involves five requirements: (1) that there be a well-defined problem; (2) that there be one or more hypotheses concerning the solution of this problem; (3) the collection, organization, and evaluation of data called for by the problem; (4) the drawing of conclusions, the result of critically applying the data; (5) the application of the conclusions to the hypotheses. The more practical viewpoint is that the data in educational research need not be objective or quantitative, but that they should be adequate for the problem and as accurate as possible.

Dr. Monroe describes the four prevailing attitudes toward educational research. The first is that held by many school administrators who consider "educational research as high-grade accounting and publicity." Very frequently one of the major functions of such research is to show to the local community that school costs in city X are below the median of a selected group or to show that the educational results in city X are above the median in the same selected group!

A second view regards the essential characteristic of educational research as the employment of objective methods and excludes any consideration of data that are not the result of objective measurement. This conception involves a far wider application of statistical measurement than is yet possible in the field of education. Existing measures must be refined and additional tests created to measure such imponderables as appreciations and attitudes. As the research movement progresses, this view will become increasingly practicable.

The third point of view is that which considers "educational research as a means of arriving at final answers to questions about education." While this viewpoint involves the ideal and is closely related to the objective method, it probably would rule out most educational research efforts of the present time. Nevertheless, it is the conception of research that most people have in mind in speaking or writing about it, even though but a small proportion of the studies that have been and are being made would really qualify as "arriving at final answers to questions about education."

The fourth viewpoint regards educational research as critical, reflective thinking about problems of education. Objective methods are considered desirable but not necessary. Thinking must be critical at all points. "The data may be subjective or faulty in other respects, but they must be the best obtainable, and more important, they must be used with full recognition of their limitations. The conclusion is expected to be dependable, but not necessarily final." This last viewpoint is not at the present time the most universally accepted one. Even though possibly not so applicable in other fields, it probably will be recognized eventually as the generally accepted attitude toward educational research.

That city school systems even now in reality accept this broader viewpoint of educational research is indicated by the names that are given to the departments and the functions that are assigned to them. The most common name, of course, is "research department"; but many cities, in designating their departments involving research, use such expressions as: child clinic and testing; reference and research; research and publicity; tests and measurements; research, guidance, and child accounting; bureau of the curriculum; curriculum study; educational measurement and research; research and student personnel; psychological examinations; research and results; research and auxiliary agencies; research and attendance.

The duties assigned to these departments are varied and often but remotely, if at all, related to real research. There is a tendency to make any new department in the school organization a "catch-all" for functions that had formerly been neglected, or to use it to relieve the superintendent and others from some of their overburdening duties. Undoubtedly research is in that stage in many school systems at the present time. The pressure of immediate practical problems that must be solved pushes the solution of fundamental and more general problems into the background. It is easier to substitute the solution of the small practical problems for the development of scientific technics and the long laborious experimentation sometimes necessary in the solution of the problems that are really more fundamental to the progress of the schools.

Practically all school systems include the following as functions of their research departments: measurement of pupil achievement, group and individual psychological testing, curriculum revision, appraisal of classroom methods, and experiments in creating new instructional methods and procedures. Many cities combine with research the following: guidance clinic for problem children, educational and vocational guidance, studies of school costs, building and site programs. Others add counseling and placement in employment, editing and directing publicity, evaluating textbooks, and keeping teacher-personnel records. Some even include teacher-rating and appraisal of supervisory procedure.

Educational research in which the classroom teachers participate offers a most effective means for promoting growth inservice. No conclusions reached through research will ever be more effective in the classroom than the teachers are able to make them. The teacher has a right to the inspiration that comes from contact with the search for the new. Dr. Buckingham says, "In the movement to democratize education let us reflect how unwise it is to jam our nostrums down the throats of teachers, and how advantageous it is to give them that vital part in determining policies and procedures which research permits. . . . If teaching children is to include studying them, the job of teaching takes on a new meaning. Its scope is broadened. Its meaning is enriched. No other calling may then be compared with it. It is the great adventure."

Recently the following question was submitted to superintendents and heads of research departments in our largest cities: "Which phase of research work in the schools do you consider the more important—appraisal of the existent or creation of new methods and procedures?" A majority of the responses indicated the former as the more important, while almost an equal number contended that the two could not be separated. The following quotations are typical of the latter viewpoint:

> The first forced us into the second.
>
> Appraisal first—creation of new methods follows very soon.
>
> I consider the appraisal of the existent to be the function of the department of research, although I believe the creation of new methods and procedures is a more important task. It is so bound up with the appraisal of the existent that I doubt if the dichotomy may be fairly made.
>
> First must take precedence as foundation for second. Can't change without evaluation of the old.

Despite the fact that much has been done in educational research in the last twenty years, many of the most fundamental problems are still unsolved. A list of but a few of the problems leaves but little doubt as to the great need for expanding and intensifying research work in education. No one knows how much of children's time and energy is dissipated in dealing with a curriculum historically evolved rather than scientifically constructed. Ineffective methods of teaching are undoubtedly the cause of greater waste than is generally realized. The movement to adjust school work to meet individual needs and help children attain their natural endowments has only begun, and much research is needed to indicate how and to what extent these objectives are practicable. While there has been some experimenting on the question of the proper sizes of classes for instructional purposes, no reliable conclusions have yet been reached. Many school accounting systems are poorly organized and administered. In some sections too many teachers are trained to meet the demand, and adequate bases for the selection of proper candidates for training have not been devised. The problem of a proper curriculum for backward children has not been solved. Further investigation and study are needed as a basis for final judgment upon the efficacy of the socalled "child-centered schools." The consideration of scientific and economic construction of school buildings is evidently a continuous problem. That research is needed is evidenced by the statement made in a "Report on Schoolhouse Planning" by the National Education Association in 1925 that "some buildings yield only two-thirds of the returns in educational efficiency which they should yield." Much progress has been made toward the scientific distribution of state funds for the support of education, but much more study and data are essential before the present methods of state aid will accomplish all they should in the equalization of educational opportunities.

There is much that can be done to strengthen local research departments. They should be relieved of some of the many and varied functions of an administrative nature that are assigned to them, and given sufficient time and help to concentrate upon real research. The expenditure of one-sixth of one percent of the budget for research is entirely inadequate if the proper estimate is placed on the contribution that research can make to the efficient expenditure of the entire budget. The universal acceptance of the value of research in the business field encourages us to believe that more support could be gained for educational research.

But the greatest need that confronts educational research at the present time is the establishment of agencies, national in scope, adequately financed, and with staffs sufficiently large and properly trained to make comprehensive studies of the fundamental problems that are not local, but common to all the schools. It is unwise to expect that these fundamental problems can be solved by local research departments, no matter how adequate their support may be. However, these national organizations might coordinate the work of the local research departments and to some extent eliminate the present waste that is due to duplication of effort and the localization of the problem studied.

The movement to establish an endowment for the research work of the National Education Association is one of the two most important projects confronting our profession. The successful consummation of this attempt will go far toward meeting the need for adequate support for research. And yet more must be done. The help of the national government must be enlisted. It has facilities at its command that cannot be equalled by any other agency. Nothing would do as much to meet the situation as to make it possible for the Federal Government to participate more effectively in the field of educational research. Our national government charts the seas, makes maps of the land, and explores its resources. Is it asking too much that this government be enabled to make any local discovery the heritage of all and to offer to the education of children the advantages of research that have been so evident in the fields of agriculture, commerce, labor, and the other departments of government?

The establishment of such agencies is prerequisite to the effective application of adequate research to education. An ever-changing civilization is constantly adding to the accumulated inheritance of the race, and the schools must equip boys and girls to claim their share of this inheritance and to make their contributions to it. A static program of education will not suffice. "Science," said Pasteur, "is the soul of the prosperity of nations and the living source of all progress." The extent to which the schools will survive and continue to be the institutions maintained by democracy to prepare its children for participation in citizenship will depend upon the ability of those schools to meet the problems of the new day.

SUPERVISION AND RESEARCH

Report of the 1930 Yearbook Commission

ALBERT S. COOK, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BALTIMORE, MD.

It was unanimously agreed at the first meeting of the Commission that the Yearbook should deal with those phases of supervision that are of chief concern to superintendents of schools. It was agreed that the carrying out of detailed technics and particular methods is the concern of specialists—hence special phases of supervision should be left to the consideration of those who are actively at work in these fields.

It was also unanimously agreed that the 1930 Yearbook, which was to be a survey of supervision from the superintendents' point of view, should be a unified report, representing the judgment and work of the entire Commission on Supervision.

The Commission is grateful to all those who so generously responded when asked for contributions; to our Secretary, Mr. S. D. Shankland, for arranging our meetings; and to the Research Division of the N. E. A., and its Director, Dr. John K. Norton. Dr. Margaret Alltucker Norton, Associate Director of the Research Division, acted as Secretary of the Commission throughout all its deliberations, carried on the correspondence with cooperating school systems, and edited the entire Yearbook; without her most valuable assistance, the Commission could not have functioned.

As defined by the Commission, supervision is a creative enterprise.

> Creative supervision provides an opportunity for each teacher and each child in a school system to grow through the exercise of his talents and abilities under expert professional encouragement and guidance. The ideals of instructional supervision are realized to the extent that the superintendent is able to organize a cooperative professional program based on a mutual recognition of interests which will intelligently utilize the results of scientific research and which will reach the goal for creative supervision set up in the first chapter of this Yearbook; namely, the development of a group of professional workers who, free from the control of tradition and actuated by the spirit of inquiry, attack their problems scientifically in an environment in which men and women of high professional ideals may live a vigorous, intelligent, creative life.

The four functions of supervision as defined by the Commission are: inspection, research, training, and guidance. All of these are carefully defined; for example,

> Research is a systematic critical investigation seeking facts or principles. Its purpose is to discover, clarify, and isolate problems; to collect, organize, and interpret facts; to formulate hypotheses, and to test them and appraise their value. Research is a creative function. If it may be assumed that true progress must come through a knowledge of facts scientifically obtained, then all curriculum construction and revision, and all improvement in materials, technics, and methods of instruction must be the outcome of research. Only through this means can we evaluate the instructional process, keep it responsive to social needs, and in harmony with the growth of scientific knowledge.
>
> The agent who carries on creative supervision should be at all times an expert, should know his field thoroughly, and should be able to stimulate others to constructive effort. It is his province to discover opportunities for improvement in materials and methods of instruction; to collect, digest, consolidate, and publish valuable data; to experiment with methods and materials of instruction which appear to be better than those in use; to measure results; to set up tentative standards and objectives; and to formulate the results of his investigations in such definite and practical terms that administrators and directors of instruction can use them.

There are superintendents who, with their boards of education, are at the present time trying to develop an adequate program of supervision in their local school systems. For these the Yearbook supplies the best thought and most progressive practises concerning the organization of the personnel; it discusses the relative advantages of the dualistic system, the line and staff system, and the coordinate system. It also supplies summaries of the researches that have been made to analyze and define the scope of the activities of different kinds of supervisory officers, with illustrations of definite, well-organized supervisory plans or programs of professional activity setting forth the objectives for the year's work and indicating the means by which these objectives are to be attained and evaluated.

There are superintendents who are engaged in an effort to justify the retention of instructional supervision in a community skeptical of its value and impatient of its cost. For these the Yearbook supplies significant studies that give evidence of the value of supervision in terms of (1) measured changes in the achievement of pupils, (2) measured changes in teaching procedures, (3) observed changes in the teaching or learning situation and in the community, and (4) judgments of individuals.

There are superintendents who are constantly concerned with improving the instruction of children, and with promoting the growth of teachers and supervisors. For these the Yearbook supplies many examples of supervision at its best—scientific, democratic, creative. There are specific case studies in the kindergarten-primary school, the intermediate school, the one-teacher rural school, the junior high school, the senior high school. There are illustrative teachers' meetings. There are outlines of procedures in course of study making which resulted in the improvement of supervision, in the growth of the supervisor, in the development of the creative talents of teachers, and in the better classification and teaching of children. One chapter of the Yearbook is concerned in answering two important questions: (1) What constitutes adequate and desirable training for supervisors? (2) What should superintendents be doing in the matter of training supervisors in service. Another chapter forecasts the future by way of suggesting experimental studies in the field of supervision. It is the superintendent's job to make creative supervision possible, and it was the purpose of the Commission to help him to do it.

> Supervision is creative when objective standards, built upon the findings of research and the best in educational theory and practise, are applied subjectively with the human element in mind. It is creative when teacher and supervisor accept the same professional aims and impersonal standards; when the results of scientific research are applied with intelligent discrimination; when there is a common understanding as to the needs of the pupils and of the school; when teacher and supervisor are working together upon the specific problem of an individual teacher; when the teacher expects, receives, and welcomes the frank and constructive criticism of the supervisor; when teachers are permitted and encouraged to develop sound teaching methods in accordance with individual talents and without being restricted by a superimposed pattern; when a degree of enthusiasm, a fine attitude, and a healthy morale prevail among pupils, teachers, and supervisors. When such conditions prevail supervision will be creative.

THE NEWSPAPER AIDS THE SCHOOL

JOHN H. FINLEY, ASSOCIATE EDITOR, THE NEW YORK TIMES, NEW YORK, N. Y.

Chairman E. C. Hartwell: I know that all of us would like to express once more, and as frequently as we find it possible to express, our tremendous delight in this magnificent orchestra that has favored us again this morning. It seems to me that we owe a large debt of gratitude to the young people themselves and to all of those who have directly or indirectly had any responsibilities for their meeting here.

I think there is some significance in the fact that we have on one of our general sessions such a topic as that which is the subject of the morning's program. Probably there is no man or woman here who hasn't some time or other, perhaps frequently, pointed with considerable pride to some fine man who has claimed the distinction and success in life and said, "Ah, that is one of my boys." We take great pride and the proper pride, of course, in the success of boys and girls whom we have had in our schools, but I don't find myself, and I suspect that you don't find yourselves speaking quite so promptly about some of the youngsters that we have had who haven't been so successful. We let someone else take the responsibility for them.

During the past year it has been my privilege to hear a number of people publicly make a statement, and to see in print a number of times, which I think cannot be too frequently made or too strongly emphasized, and that is that while we are entitled to a proper share of the credit for the success of the children whom we have in our charge, other agencies are also entitled to their share, and we have had no disposition to claim an undue share of the credit.

Along with that goes an equally important corollary which I think cannot be emphasized too frequently that we are not disposed here to take all of the blame for all of the things that are wrong. There is, then, some significance in a program such as we are privileged to hear this morning.

I have an unusual personal pleasure in presenting the first speaker. We are going to deviate a bit from the order of the program. He comes to us as an old friend. You have heard him in years gone by, and you will regard him as a personal friend, and while he is not now actively connected with school work, I think he is just as actively interested in it as he ever was, and so it is with a rather peculiar personal pleasure that I have the honor to present our cherished and esteemed friend, Mr. John Finley of the *New York Times.*

Mr. John H. Finley: I must say an added word about the orchestra. Yesterday morning I sat in the rear of the hall and I overheard a man say after the orchestra had finished playing, "I wish they would play through the entire program and omit the speeches." I think he said "cut out the speeches." I wish that could be done this morning.

James Lane Allen in his "Choir Celestial" likened certain nations and great figures in history to the voices of musical instruments. Greece was a pipe and then a lire. Rome was the sound of the trumpet. Luther was the cathedral organ, and Plato was the music of the spheres. It occurred to me this morning, hearing these children, that America is an orchestra, the voices of many instruments played together in rhythm and harmony. It is quite worthwhile coming here whether the speeches—I mean the first of them—amount to anything or not.

I appreciate the honor you have shown me, a sometime educator, for in other days I was of your noble guild. In the words of Omar Khayyam, but slightly altered:

Myself when young did eagerly frequent
The Ph. D.s and heard great argument
About it and about, yet evermore
Came out in doubt, yet wiser than I went.

To you, no doubt, as to many others, I seem, like Lucifer, to have fallen from a high estate, but I insist that I am still an "educator" (much as I dislike the word itself) and proud of my association with those Lucifers, light-bearing journalists, whose occupation has now mounted to the dignity of a profession. (May I say in passing that the name Lucifer has been lately redeemed from its Miltonian association by a Princeton professor, who has given it to a certain little crustacean, which, though it seems a bit of fallen stardust, is a creature that gives the utmost light with the least heat—a name which will some day, perhaps, be appropriate for the entire press as an agency which only the "lucifugous," those who love darkness rather than light, because their deeds are evil, will shun.) I would call them the light-bearing journalists, scattered over the world from darkest Africa to luminous Boston, and from Greenland's icy mountains, where Professor Hobbes has established a weather service base, to the snowstrands of Antarctica, whence one of the world's greatest reporters has been sending his daily messages. I would call them the writers and teachers of history in the present tense.

In the Pageant of Time, presented night before last before this group, The Voice of Time said sonorously: "The present passes; the future comes and passes; the past is forever gone." But the future never comes, for when it comes it is the present and the past is never gone for it resides in the present. As the poet-laureate of England, Robert Bridges, has written in his glorious *Testament of Beauty:*

> Whatever has been, evil or good,
> Though we can think not of it and remember not,
> Nothing can perish.

Two or three days ago there appeared in a New York paper, which shall be nameless, an account of the unearthing of the walls of Jericho which fell, according to the Scripture story, at the blowing of the ram's horns by the invaders four thousand years ago; but which rose again in the news of that day, along with the news of the signing of a treaty of arbitration between two Arab kings on the other side of the Jordan, where Elijah, one of the earliest aviators, disappeared in the skies and was never found. We thought the ancient Jericho a perished fact but here Herod the Great walks again in his palace where ruins "bright with the red so dear to Roman eyes" remember him and his fate, while in neighboring columns prime ministers debate disarmament. Here the Good Samaritan brings his guest who had fallen among thieves, an example for ages; here the blind beggar Bartimaeus has his sight restored; here Zacchaeus, the chief tax collector, of little stature, climbs again a tree "the Master for to see," and here the Master dines with him as if it were yesterday.

In a neighboring column there is an account of the uncovering of utensils of a people in Ur of the Chaldees before the flood, bringing back into the news an incident whose Noah's Ark has touched the imagination and play of all children, and whose rainbow put the prismatic hues of promise into the skies of all people that have wandered westward from Ararat.

I take these as illustrations of how the history of the long past may be made to live again in the present by the help of this news of the day. I would agree with Superintendent Bogan that we should "be our own age" and be able to see the glory of the new as well as that ancient glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome; but we should also be able to see the past that lives in every present event, and in this the newspaper should be of special aid to the school. Incidentally, there are some things that Jericho might have to say to Chicago and other cities. Moreover, Zaccheus was a model tax gatherer.

The newspapers might aid the school, then, by bringing its history down to date, giving the teacher of history, geography, and literature incidents from which to lead the pupil back through time; and so by vitalizing the past, and by enriching the background of his life, help him to realize that history is not a tale that has been already told to the end.

Secretary Wilbur in his admirable address of yesterday spoke of his surprise as a boy in finding a portrait of the then President of the United States in his history book. History had seemed to him a finished thing. So it did to me. The first book that I bought with my own money was a history of the United States (I already had a Bible), but it did not occur to me that history was being made and was going on. When I later went to the university to prepare myself for journalism, I found this motto on the walls of the seminar room: "History is past politics and politics is present history." In that definition of a great English historian, the newspaper is the book of the day's history, the story of "mankind on the move," to quote the Secretary's phrase. It is ever in the making. It is the continuing revelation of the Almighty's dealings with the sons of men and the record of His continuing revision of the earth (which is not complete as the report of an earthquake day before yesterday near Mt. Olympus testifies).

In making up the editorial page one night, not long ago, I found on the galleys a poem which says this better than I can say it in prose. It began:

> I think God kept on talking when his Book had gone to press,
> That He continues talking to the listening sons of men.

I do not claim for the newspapers that they are inspired and written by holy men of old but merely that the best of them intelligently and accurately carry on the record, though I think no reporters have been found quite comparable with the men who reported the Creation and the Sermon on the Mount.

The generic newspaper, which is coming to be pre-eminently what its name implies, a paper that furnishes and interprets the news rather than an organ for the expression of opinion, aids the school by giving due prominence and space to school news and to competent comment on educational matters. But it should especially aid the school by bringing to its doors, for the use of the teacher and the pupil, the very latest word in the present history not only of their own locality and country but of the world. Balzac speaks of journalism as the religion of democracy. Just what he meant I do not know, but it certainly *is* democracy's religion in the sense that it is, for the highest functioning of democracy, as essential as religion is for the highest life of the individual. If journalism is the religion of democracy, the journalists are its priests—and if priests, then priests after the order of Melchisedek, that is, without beginning of years or end of days; for they live ever in the eternal Einsteinian present, in the moment in which all tenses become merged in one tense.

This is as I have often said the "televictorian age"—the age of the victory of the distant—the age of the telegraph, of telephone (wired and wireless), of television and "teletravel," and of "teleradio." But it is above all the age of the "telenewspaper," the far-gathering, the far-reaching, into which all these tele-instruments carry their word and picture of the day's journey of mankind toward its unseen goal in infinity. Its daily reminder is that we are all, whether we live in China or Peru, in Boston, Tokio, or Timbuctu, in the same boat out on a sea of space which has no friendly shores.

We have come into what someone has called planetary geographical consciousness. There is no wholly unknown land this side of the moon. I have in my pocket at the moment a radiogram from Admiral Byrd returning from the South Pole, and I have in my office a flag which he carried over the North Pole. We are now prepared to think and to act planetarily. This does not mean merely to think internationally, but to think of the relation of the *individual* to the rest of the world. The generic newspaper has, above all other functions, this for the school: to prepare youth for world citizenship and to promote world unity. It has to be done largely with words and in cold type; but in the beginning was the *word,* and it will be with men till the last reporter has turned in his last copy, the editor written his last leader, and Gabriel's trumpet is heard by radio around the earth.

When a teacher of a district school out on the prairies, as a youth of only nineteen, shut away from the world of the present tense, I had a dream of a newspaper especially for children and youth of school age that would lead them toward that citizenship. That dream has become a gleam, which I have turned aside from formal education work to follow. What I see now is a paper, not especially for youth, but one which is fit for youth as well as age, fit to be carried into any schoolhouse, and there used as a textbook, a history in the present tense—a history which will bring the past into the present, which will help the present to see where the next day's march should lead, which will make democracy acquainted with the latest word of the expert in every field of knowledge, and so help to bring about the reconciliation of democracy and science, our greatest problem, as Mr. Wilbur said, between the majority and the man who knows and wishes to tell the truth that he knows.

As an *"educator"* I was accustomed to divide those who could not or did not tell the truth into three classes:

1. Those who do not know the truth; and so if they tell it, tell it only by accident
2. Those who know it but are not willing to tell it
3. Those who know and wish to tell it but do not know how.

Since I have become an editor, I find that not even a research professor is more eager to know the truth or more eager to tell it than a journalist. I find, too, that the journalist is usually much better able to tell the truth than the research professor because he knows how to speak to the ordinary mind.

An American historian has recently spoken of those who do productive, scholarly, historical work as sheep. I suppose that he would put journalists with the goats when they come up for judgment. I noticed one morning at Delphi in Greece that the shepherd when taking his flock up past the ruins of the Temple of Apollo to pasture on the slopes of Parnassus, had put a goat to lead the sheep. I learned upon inquiry that this was the practise. I dare to hope that the goat among writers, the journalist, may yet lead the scholarly sheep in that he will furnish the data, the pasturage, for their own eternal fame and himself not be cast into the utter darkness of oblivion.

If I were to make a plea to the colleges and universities on behalf of the press, it would be to prepare a few all-round men and women—the best—who should be competent to perform a *planetary* service, not only geographically but intellectually; to be in this democratic age what Democritus was in his day to his little world; men such, as one of my acquaintances, who was prepared when the tomb of Tut-ankh-amen was opened to enter intelligently with the archaeologist; who when Einstein propounded his theory had some notion of what he was talking about; whom I found one day trying to find geometrically the area of a triangle in the terms of its sides; and yet who could tell you the baseball champions for the last ten years or the presidential returns for the last twenty—recorders and interpreters of what is added day by day to the "continuum," in the service of a super-university in which the professors are not as the Ancient of Days but as the Renewers of the Foremost Files of Time, carrying the contributions of events in their interpretations to the enrichment of the human continuum—the *race* mind, which, in turn, will inform the individual mind of its wisdom, so that each may have the best that anywhere comes to be.

As to the medium by which this continuing is day by day recorded, as a recent historian of the newspapers has said, "With all its inaccuracies, its lack of proportions, its many temptations—not always resisted—to throw prismatic colors instead of the white light of truth on its accounts of the day, the periodical press still remains the most important single source that the historian has at his command for the reconstruction of the life of the last three centuries." If for the last three centuries why not for the passing day?

Mr. Justice Holmes once said that we no longer look to the past for our sanctions. A fashion in hats goes around the earth in six months and is forgotten in a year. "We shall come to glory," he added, "not in immortality but in illocality," and the press is the chief agency of *illocality,* assisted by those swift, marvelous messengers of automobility and telepublicity.

At the end of every examination paper in what we called "The Regents," the pupil was required to sign a statement to the effect that he had neither received nor given help during the examination. The story is told that in a certain school a rather dull boy lingered after the others. When asked what the trouble was, he said that he did not know whether he could conscientiously sign the statement. The teacher asked why and the pupil said that he had prayed to the Lord to help him in the examination, and that he didn't know whether He had done so or not. The teacher looked over the paper and said, "I think you can conscientiously sign it."

There are indications in this paper that I have had some help from Secretary Wilbur, Superintendent Bogan, the author of the *Testament of Beauty,* and the author of the Pageant of Time. I have also been helped by a score or more of nameless teachers, as well as by the Author of the Universe. Therefore, I cannot conscientiously say this is my very own, but I submit it as an unsigned anonymous editorial of one who believes that the newspaper should be of greater aid to the school—especially to carry on the education of youth into manhood and womanhood and on to the end of life—and who has dedicated himself to that service.

THE HOME AIDS THE SCHOOL

MRS. LOUIS T. DE VALLIERE, VICEPRESIDENT, NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS, TRENTON, N. J.

There was a time within the memory of most of us, when the home and school seemed as widely separated as the poles; when the home resented any attempt on the part of the school to inquire into its affairs in relation to the health, behavior, or lack of progress of the child. He was sent to school to be educated, and it was the business of the teacher to educate him, regardless of his physical fitness or home conditions. Parents and teachers seldom met, except on graduation day when the time for mutual understanding had passed, or when the parent was summoned because of some act of insubordination on the part of the child, and both parties were in anything but a cooperative frame of mind.

On the part of the school, the child was its property from the time he entered the schools grounds until he left them. If he could keep up with the others he did, and if not he was left behind until some one pushed him ahead to get rid of him. Only his school subjects were the responsibility of the school, and his health, his habits, his character were the business of the home. Fortunately in those days the home accepted its responsibility, and I can recall one home where a family of nine children were taught, among other things, respect for authority. The school could always count on that home to uphold its discipline, right or wrong, and it was not always right.

When I was a very young teacher, a situation arose which had much to do with my choice of a welfare activity in later years. The children in the class were whispering about the conduct of a very beautiful little seven-year-old girl with whom they had been forbidden to associate, but from whom they were getting very unwholesome information. The stories seemed incredible, but on gaining the confidence of the child they were found to be only too true.

My principal was a dear old lady who had long since passed the period of usefulness as an educator, but held her position through sentiment. I told her the story and suggested that we send for the mother, or call at the home, inform the parents of the situation, and work with them to save the child from the evil influence which was such a menace to her. To my surprise she replied that since the offence had not taken place during school hours or on school property, it was not our affair. If we informed the parents it might cause a scandal, or unpleasant notoriety for the school, and might even result in the loss of our positions. In vain I argued for the future of the child, but in the end nothing was done about it. Ten years later I read in a newspaper that the girl had been committed to a state institution. Having children of my own, I realized fully that this particular girl, and perhaps many others, might have been made an asset instead of a liability to the community, had the home and school been able to meet on a common ground, where the welfare of the child was the first consideration.

What a change has taken place since that time, not only in the methods of education, but in the attitude of the home and school toward each other. No longer is the young child thrust out of the home at the beginning of school life into an entirely new environment, and frightened and bewildered, left to adjust himself to new conditions as best he can. Today, his mother enters his school life with him, having prepared him in advance, mentally and physically, for this new phase of his education.

She investigates school conditions as to their effect on his health and safety; she finds out something about his new companions; and best of all, she becomes acquainted with the teacher who is to play such an important part in the life of her child, and at once establishes friendly relations between the home and school, based on a mutual interest in the child. The problem of discipline is made easy for both, and the child has at the very beginning of his school life a sense of security because of this attitude of parent and teacher toward each other.

Someone has spoken of the parent, the teacher, and the child as the great triple alliance. Therefore each must work in closest harmony for the best interest of all concerned. Miss McSkimmon once said in an address, "I have spent my entire life in school, and never have I known of a case of moral failure, where the home and school worked together."

What the individual parent wants for his own child, the community as a whole wants for all its children, so today in hundreds of communities all over our country, we find the home and school banded together in a great democratic organization known as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Organized thirty-three years ago, it now has a membership of one and a half million. It has held steadfastly to its original purpose, child welfare in relation to home, school, and community, and has developed into a great school for parents who are earnestly seeking to improve conditions, and solve problems in connection with rearing their children.

Sometimes we become very critical of parents, and lose sight of the fact that it takes years of special study before a teacher is fitted for her profession, while most parents are plunged into the business of rearing children with nothing but instinct as a guide, and have to learn by experience, often costly to all concerned. Many times I am astonished at what parents can accomplish in spite of this handicap.

The home of today has come to a realization of the fact that sound health is the first essential in the life of the child; and so by means of the Congress activity known as the Summer Roundup, it is trying to aid the school by sending to it at the beginning of school life, children in perfect health and free from remediable defects, thus having them ready to go forward with the school program without loss of time through illness. The movement is only in its infancy, but already thousands of children have been benefited by it. The Congress does not claim that the idea was an original one, but it does claim "to have stimulated parent pride to put parent power to work, that the children of Congress members and others may be a credit to the homes from which they come."

Another of the recent developments in the program of work of the Congress is the Bureau of Parent Education, which is planning study courses for group meetings, and reading courses for parents unable to attend study classes. It is most encouraging to note the eagerness with which parents are availing themselves of these opportunities to study their problems in relation to the physical and mental health of their children, and in addition, striving to bring about a satisfactory adjustment of their own lives, and a harmonious relationship in the home. Children are taught more by example, than by precept.

Let us hope that the day is not far distant when no boy or girl will have completed even a high-school course, without a definite preparation for the most important business of the future, that of parenthood.

The parent-teacher association is the most constructive force in the world today, working toward the education of the public to the needs of the presentday school. It stands strongly behind every reasonable school building program and has been a great factor in the development of playgrounds in connection with the schools. Rarely now do we hear a parent say that the school that was good enough for him will do for his children. The home of today must be modern in its appointments, and the same should be true of the school. When conditions are rightly understood, parents are usually willing to pay for the best kind of school and equipment.

Perhaps nowhere has the home been of greater service through the medium of the parent-teacher association, than in the rural districts. Hundreds of old dilapidated buildings have been discarded or completely renovated, and new buildings have replaced many of the old ones. With the advent of automobiles and good roads, the modern consolidated schools have become social centers for the community for miles around. I have in mind two rural schools where I organized parent-teacher associations a few years ago. The first was an antiquated building which was the despair of the young supervisor who had done his best to get the parents together that they might know conditions. However there was no response until something unpleasant happened in connection with a school social, and the parents decided to have a meeting and discuss the matter. At the request of the supervisor, I attended, and after music and one or two speeches I suggested that the parents inspect the school while refreshments were being prepared. The result was an active parent-teacher association, and within two years a new and modern school.

The second was a comparatively new school in a community where a social center was badly needed. Some one got the idea of starting an association. After all the plans were made for a big evening meeting, it dawned on them that there was no lighting system in the school, as the men had not thought it necessary. Several lamps were procured, and men and women of all sizes squeezed into the small seats or sat on top of the desks during the meeting. Needless to say, lights and removable desks and chairs were soon in place, and the building was used for the benefit of the whole community. Most of the men had never before been inside the building and of course the outside looked fine.

For a number of years parents who took a keen interest in the work while their children were in the grade school, dropped out when they reached the high school. Today, however, we realize that it is most important for parents to keep in close touch with the school life of the adolescent, and that during this period of his development, perhaps more than any other, there should be a sympathetic understanding of the experiences of youth, on the part of the parent and teacher.

Many of the problems of social activities, home study, athletics, dress, spending money, automobiles, could be solved if parents and teachers would pull together for definite standards, while it is impossible for one or two parents to get results. The high-school age presents different problems in each class, therefore the plan for parent-teacher organization must differ from that of the grade school.

Parent-teacher groups develop teamwork between the home and school, and while the constant raising of money is discouraged, the social life of the community is often promoted by working together for some material benefit to the school, which otherwise might not be supplied. At times it is necessary to demonstrate a special need such as equipping a lunchroom, supplying a radio, or a lantern for educational slides, or playground apparatus may be necessary for the safety of the children, by keeping them from playing in the road.

Then, the home of today feels its responsibility to the rural teacher as never before. She has now a reasonable assurance of a comfortable home, ample opportunity for social diversion, and less narrow criticism, for the rural home of today has wider contacts and a broader outlook on life. The home is also concerned with adequate compensation for teachers, and provision for the future. With this in mind parent-teacher associations all over the country have endorsed legislation which would bring about these things, for the wise parent realizes that freedom from worry makes better teachers.

No one claims that parent-teacher associations are perfect, and mistakes have been made by well-meaning people who failed to live up to the policy of the organization, "cooperation, never interference" with the school management. However, the same is true of school systems, and progressive educators everywhere rejoice in the existence of this great movement which so closely links the home and school.

Recently I heard of an educator who, on being asked if there was an association in his school, replied, "No, and so long as I am at the head of this school there will never be one; I propose to run my school to suit myself." I did not realize that there were any like that still in the school system. I would like to suggest to such an educator that he start one himself with the aid of the state and national Congress, select a good leader, enlist the interest of the teachers, help direct the program of activities for the first year, and at the end of that time he will laugh at his fears.

No better reasons can be given for a close tie between home and school than those written into a Parent-Teacher Creed by Benjamin O. Wist, president of the Territorial Normal School, Hawaii:

> We believe in the home as the most significant institution developed by mankind for the maintenance and development of social welfare.
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> We believe in the school as the best agency yet created to serve the home, supplementing it and cooperating with it in the noblest work of the world, the building of human character.
>
> We believe in the parent whose unselfish love for, and interest in, the child makes possible the fulfillment of an ideal.
>
> We believe in the teacher whose faith in the future never dies; who places service to youth above all things material; whose love of the child transcends all save that of his mother.
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> We believe in the child, the inspiration of today, the hope of tomorrow, the binding of parents, the soul of teaching; and so we believe in the parent-teacher Association; not as an organization of parents created to supplement the school in a task beyond it; not as an organization of teachers created to lessen their load; but as an organization of parents and teachers created by these, in the interest of their most priceless possession, the child.

SOCIAL AGENCIES AID THE SCHOOL

JAMES E. WEST, CHIEF SCOUT EXECUTIVE, NATIONAL COUNCIL, BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA, NEW YORK, N. Y.

Dr. James E. Russell, when Dean of Teachers College, said:

> Education is not wholly a matter of schools and school training. Indeed, if it were, we should come off badly. Consider for a moment the time problem. Our children are in school at most five hours a day, five days in the week, for forty weeks in the year—a total of 1000 hours. The average child of school age is awake fifteen hours a day for 365 days in the year—a total of 5475 hours. Any way you reckon

it, the normal child is receptive, getting impressions, using ideals, reaching conclusions, fixing habits, organizing his modes of behavior which, Prof. James said, is education, four hours outside of school for every hour spent in school. Let the school be administered by directors of the widest vision and the highest ideals; let it be equipped with the best appliances and staffed by teachers with the ripest scholarship, the finest training, and the clearest pedagogical insight, and you still have to reckon with forces inherent in the nature of the child and incident to his life in a society, that are overwhelmingly and persistently directing his personal development. Public safety, therefore, calls for more than the schools are officially encouraged to give.

Again in the same address, Dr. Russell said:

> Fortunately, education is more than schooling. The development of character for good or ill goes on, whether the child is in school or out of school. His impulse to imitate what he sees and adopt what he likes in the real world about him is more powerful, because more natural, than the tendency to identify himself with the artificial life of the schoolroom. Hence the commanding importance of the playground and the educational significance of games that enlist a boy's best self in active cooperation with his fellows. If nothing better offers, he will take to the streets and find his place in a gang of kindred spirits, tearing down or building up his neighbor's property and his own character at one and the same time. The real world of the public school boys, "the world in which things of vital importance happen," as Kipling puts it, is the world outside the classroom—the world of the home or the street, of the church or the saloon, of the library or the poolroom, of the club or the gang, of the world of brooks and trees and God's out-of-doors, or the world of alleys and backyards and Hell's Kitchen.
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> Teachers who are concerned with the education, as distinguished from mere instruction, of their pupils are earnestly seeking to merge their work with the best influences in the home, in the church and in society. They welcome all supplementary means of arousing a boy's ambition, of quickening his emotions, of attracting his interests, and of fixing his habits. They like to see him give himself wholeheartedly to something worth doing, whether it be work or play, and to stick to the job until it is done. They know that selfreliance, selfdirection, and selfcontrol come in no other way, and that preaching about the finest ideals of life leaves the boy untouched, unless he himself builds them into his own character.

What are the agencies and to what extent are they cooperating with the school? I must confess that in preparing for this presentation I myself was astonished to find the extent to which presentday conditions have brought into existence all kinds of agencies involving cooperative relationships with the public schools throughout our country. I find, for instance, listed in the Annual Bulletin of the National Information Bureau, an organization endorsing creditably operated organizations, forty-eight different national organizations, supported by voluntary contributions, devoting themselves to purposes and activities involving cooperative relationships with the public schools at some places in America. I find in a typical city, the city of Cleveland, that in the recent appeal on behalf of the community fund for $4,650,000 for the support of 110 welfare agencies, forty-five of these agencies involved cooperative relationships with the public school system at some point, some of them very definitely and extensively, others incidentally.

Many of these, it is true, involve activities within the school, but on the other hand there are many conducting programs for the child outside of the schoolrooms.

I have not been chosen as the representative of these agencies or any particular group of these agencies, but I am sure, based upon my experience over many years, involving cooperative relationships with public schools in many parts of the country, I can say on behalf of all that the social and educational agencies outside of the school are greatly indebted to the representatives of the public schools all along the line for practical, sympathetic, and effective cooperation.

It is the exception when a school official does not readily respond to an opportunity presented to it by a social agency that may be of value to the child. After all, whose child is he? The home has him first, last, and most of the time, that is, for the great majority of our children. Recent studies tend to show that the influence of the home outreaches all other influences in the outcome of child conduct and behavior. The church usually has a contact with the child before the public school. The church has a little span of service that reaches beyond the school age, but we must remember that only a portion of our boys and girls have these contacts.

The various social agencies are working with and for school children. Therefore, the school will recognize the partnership relation to the child's all-around education. The common objective of home, church, and school in social agencies is to produce worthy citizens who are able and willing to do for themselves and to contribute to the common good. The best training for citizenship is gained from successful practises in doing with satisfaction the things which good citizens ordinarily do. The more nearly the life of a child is tied up with and adjusted to the life of the community, both in and outside of the school, the less occasion and need there will be for transfer of training.

The schools are dealing with human problems more vital than mere subjectmatter. In this the teachers of the maladjusted child are going even to evaluate his home environment. The school has learned that what happens outside of the school hours has a very definite bearing on the quality of work done in the school. Society no longer permits the school to cover its failures by expelling the difficult child from the school. The successful social adjustment of the child is the supreme and joint responsibility of the school, the home, the church, and the social agencies of the community. Schools that are awake to their responsibilities recognize their limitation and draw freely upon every agency in the community for whatever contribution each can make to the common objective.

School men are well acquainted with the special lay service of visiting nurses, probation officers, charity, and relief organizations. School officials are also familiar with the various social agencies which carry on a special service with boys and girls of school age, such as the 4-H Clubs for farm boys and girls, with a membership close on to 800,000, a special building and equipment program, such as the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., boys' clubs and similar organizations for girls, individual personal service of the Big Brothers and Big Sisters to problem boys and girls, the Playground and Recreation Association and its service to large groups throughout the country.

Yesterday, we had brought to our attention, in a splendid way, the importance of reckoning with the leisure time of boys and girls. Indeed, the other night we were privileged to see a marvelous pageant in which this was dramatically made clear. I could not help wondering why the author of that pageant did not see fit to bring into the picture the part which these leisure-time movements and social agencies have in the scheme of things. We know that organized society has found of practical value these agencies which deal primarily with the leisure time of boys and girls, closely cooperating with the school, the home, and the church. There are many such agencies for both boys and girls, and it is rather heartening to realize the extent of cooperation that exists between these agencies and the public schools, the church agencies, and parents throughout the country.

Time will not permit me to review even briefly the good work of all of these and other worthy social agencies, but I can briefly point out the values and the scheme which is peculiar to the Boy Scouts of America which I am honored to represent. We have just been celebrating the twentieth anniversary of the Boy Scouts of America. It seems as if it were but yesterday that in February, 1910, this movement was incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia. In the twenty years that have passed, the challenging figure of 4,879,000 is revealed as the accumulated membership of that great organization. In the year 1929, 1,181,227 different individuals were definitely enroled as members. Many of these, I am happy to record, are adults, men giving personal service. Indeed, the year closed with a membership of 843,000 men and boys, of which 227,000 are men giving personal service because of their interest in the problems affecting America and because of their interest in boy work.

In the promotion of the scheme of Scouting every effort has been made purposely to reduce organization to a minimum. Emphasis has been placed upon making the program available as a movement for existing organizations to use to supplement their primary responsibilities in dealing with boys. Yes, very deliberately, we have avoided establishing independent facilities for troop meetings or for Scouting activities at any point. We have sought to encourage the use of existing equipment and facilities. The one exception to this has been in the development of facilities for camping.

Again, the organization policy has been developed on a sound, democratic basis. The institution seeking a charter for the privilege of carrying on Scouting is entitled, and is urged, to avail itself of the opportunity of having representation in the overhead organization, that is the local council. There are some 27,000 troops, the great proportion of which are connected with some existing institution. In special cases and in small communities where community troops are organized, an effort is made to have the troop committee representative of the interests of the community. All of these troops have the privilege, and are urged to have representation, in the overhead organization known as the local council. There are 632 such local councils covering almost entirely the whole of our country. The large city has generously assumed the responsibility for the adjacent rural area and a unique organization procedure in social and educational work is in operation. The local council is entitled, and is urged to elect at least one representative to the National Council and an additional representative for each one thousand boys enroled. The National Council, therefore, is essentially a democratically organized group, a majority of whose members represent local council activities. The National Council meets annually and operates through an executive board of not to exceed forty-five members elected by the National Council. The executive board operates through an executive staff with headquarters in New York City. The National Council is affiliated with the international organization, in which there are some forty-four different nations actively participating.

Scouting has for its purpose character building and citizenship training. It aims to utilize the leisure time of the boy, to carry out a program peculiar to the Boy Scouts of America. It undertakes to deal with boys as individuals, as members of the patrols, as troops. It gives them a uniform. It brings them in contact with selected leadership-men, clean, wholesome-minded, virile, and possessing qualities of leadership. These men are known as Scoutmasters. They serve without pay. They are for the most part permitted to serve only after they subject themselves to a special course of training.

Last year over 14,000 men received certificates for an accredited course of training qualifying them to serve as Scoutmasters. This group of men undertake to carry out a program of activity. All boys' organizations have activities, but in the Scout movement the scheme provides for recognizing achievement. We have our Tenderfoot, Second Class, First Class ranks, and we make it possible for the boy to qualify for various merit badges, but we do more than that, we have a code. We have a Scout oath. We have twelve Scout laws. Then we have a very profoundly sound educational procedure based upon service for others. The daily good turn of the boys as individuals, the service of the patrol, of the troop, the service to the community is not merely for the purpose of doing things worthwhile. It is definitely the intention of those who are promoting Scouting, and it was definitely the intention of the genius from whom we received Scouting, to have this serve as a sound educational process to overcome the human tendency to be selfish and to develop in boys a habit of thinking about others, a habit of looking for opportunities to be of service with the hope that it would help in the development of the boy's character, in making him more disposed to do his share as a participating citizen.

I am happy to record that in carrying out this program there is an unusual degree of cooperation on the part of the public schools everywhere. A study shows that in 271 cities we have been given the use of the buildings without charge. In 291 cities there are definite programs for promoting the membership by cooperation and making available the names of boys who will become twelve years of age. In 298 cases schoolmen are active on local councils.

Indeed, in many of our cities the superintendents of schools are active in service as members of our executive committees, and in many cases these men are the leaders of our training school work. It is almost the exception when a school man declines to render cooperation.

Perhaps the most outstanding example of cooperation on the part of the schools is in the city of Detroit, where under the leadership of your distinguished President, Dr. Frank Cody, the building program for the city of Detroit has been developed on a basis of making available what would have been waste space in the attic, facilities equipped especially for the meeting of Scout troops. This has not interfered with our fundamental principle of having troops organize under the auspices of churches and other institutions dealing with boys, but it has made it possible to furnish better equipped meeting-places. More than this, Detroit has seen fit to add to its staff at the expense of the budget of the school system, two men who work exclusively in the development of such troops, and in the supervision of such troops which use school property. These men work in close cooperation with the local council. In fact they hold a position under the Scout executive on the same basis as do the other assistant Scout executives in the city of Detroit.

There are other cities that are doing similar work; others that are doing it in a modified way.

Let us look, for a minute, at some of the things that the Scout program does to aid the schools. It provides a program for their leisure time. It rebuilds the boy for the school through a health program of outdoor life in summer and winter camping, and hiking. It provides Scouts with special skills as well as training for service in the school community. It gives daily practise in voluntary cooperation and unselfish service through the troop or individual good turns. It recognizes the boy as a participating citizen and develops his resourcefulness and selfreliance and service to others through the exercise of these traits. It engages fathers of boys in service to their own sons, who need the man's example and friendship.

Through all the program of Scouting, there is constant emphasis on those activities and influences which relate to character development and citizenship training. Specific service that Boy Scouts perform in the school community can be listed as follows:

1. Handling crowd at school functions
2. Serving as usher
3. Distributing literature and posters
4. Arranging chairs for the stage
5. Keeping school grounds free of paper
6. Protecting school property
7. Assisting traffic officers
8. Serving as safety patrols
9. Taking charge of lunchrooms
10. Promoting thrift and savings
11. Handling school library and bookrooms
12. Doing hall duty

13. Serving as "runner" at annual school field day
14. Serving as fire guards
15. Directing activities of playground
16. Having charge of flag raisings
17. Other duties involving special honor and trust

It is interesting to record that in my travels about the country, it is not the exception but almost the rule that the president of the students' organization of the school itself is a high-ranking Scout. Indeed, we have the record from some cities to the effect that these boys who have had Scout training show qualities of leadership which make them a source of great joy and great help to the school authorities.

May I again quote from Dean Russell, this time specifically speaking of Scouting?

> But the most significant contribution of the Boy Scout Movement to education is its pedagogical methods. As a teacher, I take my hat off to Sir Robert Baden-Powell, the genius who in a bare decade has done more to vitalize the methods of character training than all the school men in this country have done since the Pilgrims landed on the New England coast. We have preached the virtues of a government of the people, by the people, and for the people; have sought for the best means of perpetuating a nation conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.
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> There have been times when we doubted whether a nation so conceived and so dedicated can long endure. We know full well that the experiment must eventually fail, if our citizens grow up accustomed to the evils of selfishness and greed and indifferent to the ravages of privilege and plunder. And failure is just as certain, even if a little longer deferred, if our citizens are not trained to participate actively and constructively in upholding the virtues on which both personal character and good citizenship are based.
>
> The Scout program, therefore, is essentially moral training for the sake of efficient democratic citizenship. It gives definite embodiment to the ideals of the school, and supplements the efforts of home and church. It works adroitly, by a thousand specific habits, to anchor a boy to modes of right living, as securely as if held by chains of steel; but best of all, it exhibits positive genius in devising situations that test a boy's selfreliance and give full scope to his talent for originality and leadership. These two aspects of the Scout program are so evenly balanced and so nicely adjusted as to make them well nigh pedagogically perfect. The entire organization is a machine capable of working wonders, not only in the moral regeneration of the American boy, but also in fitting him to assume the duties of an American citizen.

Yesterday we heard a most challenging address by that leader in modern thought who has done so much as public servant and is now so closely associated with President Hoover, serving as the Secretary of the Interior. He has said that it is necessary for us to look the facts squarely in the face. What would be the picture if we looked the facts squarely in the face concerning America today? How would we feel if we should see this picture as it really is? Of the world's land, the United States possesses six percent; of the world's population our people make up seven percent; of the world's wheat we grow twenty-seven percent; of the world's coal we dig forty percent; of the world's telephones we use sixty-three percent; of the world's corn we grow seventy-five percent; of the world's automobiles we have approximately eighty-five percent. And so I might go on picturing other significant facts showing how America occupies commercially a most important and strategic position in the affairs of the world as we look at this picture.

But what about the conduct of the people who make up America? We still need to concern ourselves with fact-finding, surveys, research, and appraisal, and no matter how we may differ as to the causes of conditions as they exist, certainly we cannot dispute that there is much to give us grave concern. We know, for instance, that notwithstanding the energy and the great expense to arouse people to a sense of civic responsibility, relatively few of our people the land over participate in civic affairs. In our national elections, notwithstanding all that patriotic and civic organizations do, it is difficult to bring out fifty percent of those who are responsible, of those who are qualified, who are interested enough to register and vote; and in our local governmental affairs and in our state affairs, sometimes this percent is much less. There is a great deal to give us concern as to what the effect of the cooperative relationship of all of these agencies has been uptodate in the effect it has had upon presentday citizenship.

I do not know how you feel, but personally I must confess to some grave concern because of the conditions that do exist revealing the behavior of the people of America. We are told by the American Bankers Association that the cost of crime and wrongdoing for the year 1928 involved a cost in excess of $16,000,000,000. We are told that at the present time, 184,000 men, women, and children are in jails, penitentiaries, and reformatories at public expense. We are told that close on to 1,000,000 people are arrested annually because of some charge of crime or wrongdoing.

Happily from my point of view, I do not find from the sources of information at my command that this distressing picture involving misbehavior is a reflection upon youth of today. In my judgment, they are more wholesome-minded and in larger proportion more earnestly striving to do right than ever before. They are tremendously handicapped, however, because of the example of those who are thinking loosely and acting in defiance of law, as well as by presentday civilization and the many forms of commercial recreation available to youth in all parts of the country.

The cause of these things I say requires research study beyond what has yet been attempted. We do know, however, from the facts that are available, that for the most part these people who are the cause of this great expense and great anxiety, reveal lack of certain fundamental things. We know that the studies that have been made of reformatories in certain parts of the country, of jails, and prisons such as Sing Sing in New York State, reveal that three-fourths of those who are there reflect a lack of home life, of opportunity for normal character development.

Yes, friends, we have a joint responsibility. Those of us engaged in these social agencies, together with those of you representing the great public school systems of America, have the problem of giving to America a citizenship which will, because of earnest and honest conviction, participate in its affairs, because of fundamental character will obey its laws, will not assume any right to determine which laws it can obey and which it can evade. We have a big job, if we are to do the things which Secretary Wilbur's challenge presented to us as a great opportunity.

We in Scouting are definitely trying to help in every way in our power. We are trying first to develop the boy physically in order that he may have a basis of help to be an efficient citizen. We are trying to do all we can to encourage him to take full advantage of his educational opportunity. The Scout movement stands squarely behind the public school system and it will not at any point allow its program to interfere with that of the schools. Indeed, it encourages its boys, its members, to take full opportunity not only of the graded school, but it encourages them to go on to high schools, and there are many boys in schools and colleges today because of the helpful influence of a wise Scoutmaster.

More than that, it stresses the importance of vocational skill. It urges upon boys the need of discovering something that they can do well and then equipping themselves, so as to be efficient in that thing.

Then, last, it stresses the fourth point, of character building. Scouting does that through providing life situations wherein under the example of a picked leader, and with group approval, the boy can practise its ideals, its Scout oath, and its Scout law in his daily affairs. It contributes to that through its twelfth Scout law:

> *A Scout is reverent*—He is reverent toward God. He is faithful in his religious duties, and respects the convictions of others in matters of custom and religion.

This gives the basis for cooperation with the churches of America to the end that they and we may help you in promoting and bringing about the development of a boy equipped personally with a power within himself, a desire to know what is right and some motives for doing it; equipped personally to have right attitudes toward life. Yes, equipped within himself to have power of selfcontrol, and the desire so that he can do the thing that is right because his judgment tells him it is right and that he will refrain from doing the thing that is wrong because it is wrong.

In Scouting, we believe that attitude of mind is an important element affecting conduct. We believe that a general cultural education and the experience which a boy has as a member of a patrol and troop in group activities under properly trained leadership, as well as the high ideals as developed in seeking to live by the Scout oath and law and the "good turn" requirement, definitely contribute to giving the boy right attitudes.

Attention is invited to the fact that the boy becomes a Scout voluntarily and he remains a Scout because he wants to. His attitude is that of playing a game and he as a matter of course accepts the rules of the game. The fundamental responsibility of the Boy Scouts of America as an organization in all of its relationships is, therefore, to create and maintain conditions so that the boy intensely desires to be a Scout. Because of this fundamental factor we find in Scouting that boys accept that ideal of Scouting as contained in its Scout oath and law without argument, without preachment, but simply as a matter of course because it is expected of them as a part of the rules of the game.

We further believe that his experience as a Scout in doing the things which the program of Scouting inspires and stimulates, definitely forms desirable habits of conduct reflecting a wholesome attitude toward life and respect for others and for the community; and that when these acts and attitudes are "worked-at," they result in habits of conduct, and moral fibre, character and a degree of selfcontrol which insure a better prepared citizenship—men of character, trained for the responsibilities of citizenship.

We have between us a great job in rendering an account of our stewardship to the American people, and please let us help in every way within our power.

THE SCHOOL'S DEBT TO ITS FRIENDS

WALTER A. JESSUP, PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, IOWA CITY, IOWA

It is fitting that, at the close of this great convention, we should rededicate ourselves to the task of education itself. We should reaffirm our convictions as to the value of education. We should pledge ourselves to a reestablishment of our connections with the agencies that have brought schools into existence, the agencies that maintain the schools, the agencies that depend upon schools. It should never be forgotten that the schools are not ends, but means to the attainment of a citizenry of "free men" in all that this term implies.

The American public school has captivated the imagination of the nation and, indeed, of the whole world, for we have taken the public school to our hearts in a very distinctive way. Henry Barnard and Horace Mann could have scarcely dreamed of the extent to which education has "prospered" within the past hundred years. Even William T. Harris, perhaps our greatest educational philosopher, could have scarcely expected such a thorough commitment to public education as is apparent in this year of grace, 1930.

The statistician never tires of showing the growth in interest in public education as measured by increase in the number of days in schooling, increase in the years in schooling, increase in the number of persons receiving schooling, increase in the number of school buildings, increase in the cost of the buildings, the enrichment of the curriculum, increase in the training and preparation of teachers, and increase in the compensation of teachers.

Horace Mann centered his fight on the problem of general taxation as the basis for public school support. Not until during the '70's was the matter of the legal right of the community to tax itself for secondary education settled by the courts, and now we are told that upwards of 4,000,000 students are attending high schools daily. Nearly a million students are in college. Millions of students are carrying forward some form of adult education. Indeed, roughly, one out of every four of all the people of America, from babes in arms to octogenarians, is enroled in some program of education. It is hard for us to realize that just a few years ago we were waging a campaign to insure compulsory education, and many of us find it difficult to appreciate the fact that such a campaign is now being conducted in England.

After the victory for compulsory education had been won came the necessity for better methods and devices for teaching the heterogeneous mass of children thus assembled. Most of the younger superintendents recall the criticism of yesterday implied in the words "retardation" and "elimination." But with improved methods of instruction, the enriched curriculum, and better teaching skills, we have in recent years heard much less of "elimination" and "retardation." It is the fashion now to view with alarm lest people are being educated out of their class, lest there be too many "educated persons."

We all remember the agitation of a decade ago against college domination of the secondary schools, together with the agitation for the diversified curriculum which would provide for training for the industrial arts, home economics, and agriculture. We hear less of that today.

The National Society for the Study of Education has put most of its energy in the past two or three years on studies relative to the improvement in the teaching of the three R's. The current yearbook is centered around arithmetic.

Thus, leadership in the programs of public education has always expressed its fears and hopes in these great gatherings of the Department of Superintendence. A review of the programs of this department, since its establishment, furnishes a cross section of the shifting interpretation of the task of the school. A comparison of the topics of discussion by decades reveals the fact that the schools have come to have an ever larger task in carrying forward the program of society. The earlier struggles centered around the theory of public taxation for the support of schools, around the theory of community responsibility for education. After this battle was won came the problem of guaranteeing that all children would be reached by the schools. Then came problems of adapting education to the heterogeneous group thus assembled. Then came problems of finance to meet the growing cost of mass education with an enriched curriculum, and through it all has been the recognition of the American school as an essential feature of American life.

With the passing of the decades, the parents have come to trust the schools more and more with details formerly carried forward in the home. Industry and business have expected more and more of the schools. The state has relied upon the school for training its citizens, and even the church has found new uses for the school in carrying forward its program of religious education and the molding of character. Thus, in no period in our history have the schools held such a place of command. At no time have they been so fully depended upon. It is imperative that school boards, executives, and supervisors have an ever clearer understanding of the world at large, to the end that right choices may be made in the selection of material for instruction, and that the right objectives may be set up toward which the program of education should proceed. There are many people who lament the fact that the home has surrendered so many of its prerogatives to the school. There always have been people who believed the school's function was to give the tools of knowledge only, leaving to the other institutions the task of interpretation, so as to insure attitudes and special skills.

Whether we like it or not, these changes are here, these obligations have been assumed by the schools, and the school owes it to society either to discharge seriously the obligations set by its friends, or to repudiate them.

The subject of this address is "The School's Debt to Its Friends," and one might ask, who are its friends? Does a school have any enemies? I can think of none. Society, as it is organized today, has brought about the most elaborate scheme of division of labor that can well be imagined. Our effectiveness and happiness depends upon each of us doing the part assigned to us. With this widespread division of labor that is apparent on all sides, it becomes imperative that each agent that undertakes a job must complete it in all seriousness. It might well be said that the *best thing a school can do to pay its debts to its friends is to do its job well.*

As the home relinquishes its hold on the child, it comes to place added responsibility on the school. As industry abandons the apprentice system, a new responsibility is placed upon the school. With the expansion of suffrage, the state adds a burden upon the school. With the growth in leisure is added a new responsibility for the school. These added responsibilities, coupled with the facts involving universal mass education, present problems to the school that challenge all of its leadership.

The logical and immediate solution for these problems has been in the direction of standardization—standardization of hours, equipment, curriculum, and teaching. It is true that standardization has cheapened the cost of material things, and it must be admitted that it has increased the distribution of worthwhile things. But standardization is deadly to the spirit, and it is of the utmost importance that the schools resist the complacency that comes with the standardized product. Leaders in our present industrial world are recognizing this, and are spending vast sums of money in the attempt to bring about constant improvement. One great industrial leader is recently quoted as having said that industry's only hope consisted in making people dissatisfied with the things that they have. For example, automobile production is dependent upon the ability of industry to make *dissatisfied* customers. The schools can learn much from this philosophy. Our great developments in the telephone and the radio, for example, have been enormously augmented by the fact that these industries have maintained effective research organizations whose business it has been to challenge every existing thing with the hope of bringing about widespread improvement.

If ways could be found to carry forward experimental work in the fields of education, there is little doubt that our present educational customers would become dissatisfied. Certainly there are better ways of teaching than those now in general operation. Certainly there are better materials than are now in general use. Surely the last word has not been spoken as to schools.

For twenty years it has been said in high places that it is possible to telescope the elementary and secondary school systems so as to save a year. Many people are suggesting that the secondary school and the junior college can be combined with a saving of two years. What steps have been taken to find out whether it is possible to telescope our present educational program? The experimental evidence is almost nil. The experimental interest is by no means widespread. Unfortunately, we have been willing to rest our case by descriptions of what *has* existed, by descriptions of what *does* exist, but there have been all too few serious attempts to find out what *might* exist. A great industrial leader is reported to have said that the experts in his industry have been chiefly of value in advising as to certain things that were impossible, "but," said he, "after listening to the statements of experts that things were impossible, through our experimental laboratories we have been able to demonstrate their possibility, and have thus made all of our great contributions to the industry." You will recall the fact that the physicists agreed a few years ago that it would be impossible to make a flying machine.

As a matter of fact, the most interesting thing in this modern industrial world, dominated as it is by machinery, is the fact that the dreamers back of these great developments have challenged everything, they have dared anything, to the end that they have transformed industry, transportation, distribution, and communication. With it all they have released literally years of leisure for us all. Witness the short day and the five-day week.

Who is there in this room who would dare to say that our present schools represent the last word in choice of material, in technic of instruction, or, indeed, in educational objetcives? Who knows whether or not we can telescope the school course and save expense and time? Who kows whether or not we are making the right selection of material in history, in English, in literature, in geography, and what not to provide a clear understanding on the part of the students of this complex world? Who is certain of the work which we are offering in the school in the arts, in music, in painting, in dramatics? Who is satisfied with the school's emphasis upon the vague thing known as values? With a short day, a short week, a short month, and a short year of industry, how are we to spend these leisure hours sa as to insure social security, economic independence, and individual happiness?

The schools have expanded, and the schoolmaster is abroad in the land. He is everywhere. His services are sought after by young and old, by rich and poor, by high and low. We need new knowledge, we need new wisdom, else the thing which we give in response to this universal demand will be inadequate. If we fail, other agencies will take our place.

The National Education Association is interested in research and a little money is being expended. There are a few educational experiments, but absurdly few; and almost none of them are carried with any degree of determination to see to it that the experiments function in generally accepted conclusions. Large sums of money are being expended in the fields of medicine. New facts are recognized, new technics are accepted, and certainly in the leading centers of training physicians, the research spirit abounds. Chemistry and physics have revolutionized industry. Botany and biology have changed agriculture. Education should catch step with the world and experimental projects should be carried on in many places. The centers for the training of educational leadership should abound in experimental projects that would lead to experimental attitudes that would lead to improved practises.

In conclusion may I say that the school's debt to its friends can only be paid by the *school's doing the job to which it is committed,* and in the carrying out of this program, we need the cooperation of the home, the church, the state, and industry, to the end that we may be able to utilize the sciences now available in the direction of experimental projects in improving the effectiveness of the schools, which may come about in the form of a shortened course, a reorganized curriculum, the introduction of modern devices in teaching school. The product of tomorrow's school will need to live a richer life, utilizing the margins of interest, if our civilization is to justify itself in being the home of "free men."

Society depends upon us. When they ask for bread, we dare not give them a stone.

ENRICHING HUMAN LIFE THROUGH THE FINE ARTS

WALTER DAMROSCH

How can I thank you enough for this hearty reception except by turning it properly where it belongs, to this young, enthusiastic, and talented orchestra and to its creator and man who has watched over it and developed it to what it is today, Mr. Maddy.

It is a great honor to appear before the educators of our country, for you hold in your hands the entire future of our people. That you have proved yourselves more than able the past has demonstrated. You hold this greatest blessing of civilization, the education of man, the education of our youth, in your strong and flexible hands, strong because they administer those great laws of the proper development of the mind which the past, with its many thousand geniuses, students, and lovers of mankind, has evolved; and flexible because you have kept an open mind for new ideas that may come up and that can fittingly link themselves to that which you have given us through and because of the past.

That I personally am particularly grateful that your hands are not only strong but also flexible can readily be understood, because I, as a musician, am grateful to you for having taken into your hands the great thought that music, its cultivation, the love for it is an absolute essential for mankind if it is to demonstrate a fitting culture. It is because of that that I now venture to call myself one of your youngest colleagues.

God has given us emotions, feelings, which we demand utterance for. It is for us, for you and me, to see that this utterance shall be noble, though deeply felt, and that it shall connect us with the esthetic in nature, in art, and that is the cultivation of the beautiful. What then can more fittingly, more nobly develop those feelings in the young than a study of music and the perception that a knowledge of it, a love for it is as much a part of our life as those necessary studies which will fit us for the socalled practical side of maintaining our physical life.

That is now an old truism, and we, you and I, understand this, we are as one about it, and the only marvel to me is, considering the youth of music in this country, how quickly this contest or battle, whatever you choose to call it, has been won, and how unanimous now through all the United States of America this feeling is among our great educators, that music shall be a part of the curriculum.

I may say that what little I have been able to do in this direction was more or less local, as all of us who are placed within a certain limited circle. I gave my concerts for forty years principally in New York City; I traveled with my orchestra a great deal. Every other year usually I went to the coast. I gave hundreds, thousands of concerts, but they were for an audience of at the utmost 3000 people, and they were for an audience that could afford liberally to pay for their tickets. In other words, music which should belong to the people has, until four years ago, so to speak, never been able to touch those from whom we may expect the great geniuses of the future to come, and that is the people at large, for in our country music has not gone the same course as in Europe. In Europe it sprang from the socalled common people through the folk songs, which were developed here and there among the people, sung and passed from one mouth to another. This was the lovely heritage of the past, out of which the great masters not only sprung, but from which they drew their inspiration.

In America, the musical education began among the well-to-do classes who could afford to engage professors to teach their children piano, singing, and perhaps a few of the orchestral instruments. The people at large had no opportunity of hearing music, and after all, the ear has to be educated in order to perceive the finer possibilities of music, the exquisite beauty of a symphonic piece played by a hundred, or as today by three hundred instruments, each telling its own story, playing its own melody at the same time that its neighbor is playing a different melody; yet the two together making exquisite, tantalizing, sweet, and beautiful harmony.

All this has, and I am personally deeply grateful for it, been accomplished through the greatest scientific invention of modern time, the radio, for through it not only have I been able for four years to give weekly symphonic concerts to an audience which now numbers between eight and ten million people every Saturday, but last year I was able to begin a series of music appreciation concerts for the children and the young people of our schools, public schools, high schools, and colleges. I hoped that through this I would be able not only to help such efforts as Mr. Maddy's in developing high-school orchestras, but that I would create in general a knowledge among the young people that music is a language just as the English or the German or the French is. It is a language which especially and above all others expresses our feelings, feelings which the child has just as much as the grownup, feelings of happiness, of sorrow, of joy, of misery, of reverence, of search for God, of patriotism, of all those things that make up the sum and total of our inner life which is, after all, the relative.

In this we have been wonderfully successful. I think I perceived from the very start what the possibilities and what the limitations of such concerts as I give should be, and that is that they are intended to supplement the real work of teaching, singing, and of teaching the laws of music, because they should especially develop a love for music in the children. After a child once loves something, to teach it further along the same road is easy.

In no sense would it be possible for me to supplant such teaching. On the contrary, it should act as an encouragement, and through the love for music which we may hope to engender through our concerts, the local schoolboard, the local supervisors of music, and the local teachers will be able, and are able, to evoke a greater interest among their pupils and to teach them that which every human being should know and that is to sing together, and, if possible, to play together. Therefore, if I may be considered as a kind of henchman to such workers in this field as Mr. Maddy and others, I am more than repaid.

We have this year in my concert over five million people. We began last year with perhaps a million and a half of school children. The enthusiasm with which this idea of mine was received all over the country is truly remarkable. Radios have been placed in the schools as if by magic. Whole cities have supplied themselves with radios; some of them bought by the schoolboards, others by the parents, others by music clubs, others by the children themselves bringing their pennies and their five-cent pieces so that they, too, might have their Friday morning concerts. So you see I am happy and grateful because at a time of life when I thought I had pretty well done all I could and I could not do more than repeat myself, thanks for the radio, I am again brought into contact with what I love best of all, the youth of America.

CLOSING CEREMONIES

President Cody: Mr. Tremaine, Director of the National Society for the Advancement of Music.

Mr. Tremaine: As Director of the National Bureau for the Advancement of Music, it is my privilege to present to the boys and girls of the National High School Orchestra a gold pin as a souvenir of this great occasion. It is an emblem of the honor of being selected from all over the United States to demonstrate to the public school superintendents of America the great advance which has been made in public school music within a very few years.

While I cannot pay too much tribute to the members of the Orchestra and to those who have trained them for this outstanding event, perhaps the greatest tribute should go to our public schools, which have had the foresight to supply the demand for the fullest education, and which have proved this by producing such an orchestra as the one to which we have just listened.

President Cody: I want to say to the National High School Orchestra "thank you" for the boys and girls of America.

This is not a benediction but it is a "thank you" to the members of the Department of Superintendence for your loyalty and cooperation. At this time I wish to present my successor in office, Superintendent Norman R. Crozier, of Dallas. He hails from Dixie. Superintendent Crozier.

President-Elect Crozier: Mr. President, and Members of the Department, and Friends: There is a time and a place for everything, and this is not the time for a speech. I just want to say that I thank you from the bottom of my heart for the confidence that you have in me. I hope that you will not regret it. I shall promise to work unselfishly, not for the north, the south, the east, nor the west, not for the Department of Superintendence, not for the National Education Association, but wholeheartedly in the interest of the children of America.

As my first pre-official act, I have the privilege to present to the prince of presidents the key which belonged to all the Past Presidents, but I warn Superintendent Cody not to wear this until tonight after midnight.

President Cody: Now a final word, and this is the last, let us go home and make education the spirit of life. I thank you.

CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS

State House, Senate Chamber

Columbus, Ohio

Monday, June 30, 1930, 2:00 P. M.

C. B. GLENN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BIRMINGHAM, ALABAMA, PRESIDING

MEMBERS of the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence: This is a conference for superintendents of schools scheduled to meet at two oclock this afternoon, and you will note that we are beginning on time. We have missed from this gathering some familiar faces among the superintendents. Someone has said that Frank Cody is in the audience. I haven't seen him but if he is here I want to give Frank five or ten minutes to tell us what he has in store for us in Detroit in February.

(A talking motion picture was thereupon projected on the screen including a five minute talk as recorded by Mr. Cody in connection with the picture.)

The Chair: My friends, I am sure you join me in expressing thanks from this group to the company who very kindly presented Superintendent Cody to us this afternoon; the next best thing to having him here in person. Thank you very much.

As you no doubt know, the one who should be presiding at this time is Superintendent Norman R. Crozier of Dallas, Texas, the President of the Department of Superintendence. Some two months ago Mr. Crozier said to me that he expected to be abroad this summer and asked if I would take charge of this meeting. He said that I would have nothing to do except preside, that Mr. Shankland would prepare the program. Shortly thereafter I received a letter from Mr. Shankland telling me he was in a hurry for *my* program; he wished I would send it right up, that the printer was waiting for it. Over the wire we got busy with the men whose names appear here and very promptly they consented to give this discussion this afternoon. So the program is here. As soon as it was in shape Mr. Shankland sent mimeograph copies throughout the land to the superintendents of schools and as a result I have had innumerable letters; some expressing regret that they could not be here to hear this program, some asking for printed copies of the papers, some asking if we would not provide a court stenographer to report the addresses. I take this to mean that in selecting the subject—Character Education—for discussion we have hit upon a thing that is of first importance to the school men and school women of America.

It is my pleasure at this time to present Dr. W. W. Charters, Director of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, who will speak on "Aims and Methods of Character Training in Public Schools."

AIMS AND METHODS OF CHARACTER TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

W. W. CHARTERS, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

The belief that our civilization is changing rapidly has led inevitably to a quest for certainty. In the midst of perplexing problems we need to have something substantial to which to tie. The automobile, the radio and the airplane, symptomatic of radical changes, introduce new situations in which we do not know exactly what to do. Whether the perplexities of this generation are more pronounced than those of any other generation we do not know. Each generation feels that its social problems are a little more complicated than were any of those that preceded them. But whether more or less, every person who is thoughtfully thinking his way through the world in which he lives needs to have, for the good of his soul, some fundamentals of which he can be certain.

This provides a setting for a consideration of the aims of character training. The one major value that character contributes to the happiness and usefulness of individuals is a battery of moral traits and social ideals which have been tested by the centuries. New situations may arise, novel perplexities may emerge, and conventions may disintegrate, but the fundamental traits of honesty, courage, and kindness are still as substantial as they were at the time of their first discovery and formulation. These are the anchors that hold us solid. Situations may change, trait actions may be modified, behavior may be altered, but these traits of character maintain their strength and solidity throughout the centuries. Superficial forms may be eliminated, but we still believe that the essences of these traits are right.

One of the aims, therefore, of character training, is the development of these traits which orient us in carrying through our purposes and in helping us to cooperate with other people. Our character traits are of two types. In order that we may control our environment and develop our own programs of living, we use the hard traits of honesty, forcefulness, courage, industry, and ambition. But in order that we may live happily in a social situation we make use of the gentle traits of kindliness, cooperation, and tact. These two batteries of traits, the hard and the gentle, constitute in one respect at least the equipment with which we provide ourselves and our children in our preparation for life and our participation in its activities. Without these traits well developed and skillfully handled the child will, both during his school days and in adult situations after graduation, be unable to cope successfully and efficiently with the experiences which concern him. The major function of the school is to develop these fundamental traits of character.

There is a variety of ways in which traits of personality may be developed. One of them is so essential and so important that it becomes a major aim of character training. I refer to the ability to think one's way through moral and social situations. In some forms and in some stages of civilization the fundamental traits of character are impressed upon the young mechanically. Courage in such cases is learned through imitation, by the use of scorn, ridicule, and pain. Courtesy is impressed through example and imitation, by suggestion, force, and punishment. While moral qualities unquestionably become deeply impressed in the tissues of character by methods such as these, the learner does not have complete use of them in his quest for certainty, because he sees them as ends of life rather than as tools of living. He has unreasoned use of them, and therefore an exaggerated opinion of their uses. His hold upon them is formal and rigid. They are fabricated from cast-iron rather than from pliable and tempered steel.

In order, therefore, that these traits of character be given their maximum usefulness, the school essays to develop them through the use of reason and discussion. Armed with the ability to think his way through situations which involve these traits, the child possesses more than ordinary power, he is in a position to make new applications of old and tested standards in modified surroundings, he becomes the master of these dependable instruments of living and uses them with intelligence and efficiency.

The third aim of character training in the public schools rounds out the picture. It is important that the child develop fundamental traits of character; it is essential that his powers of reasoning in moral situations be developed; but in addition to these aims, it is important that he have strong emotional convictions of the worth of these qualities of character. If he is to secure his maximum solidity of life and purpose he must love and utilize the qualities that have been developed for exactly the purpose of giving him solidity and power. This regard must be of the heart as well as of the head. Feeling must supplement intellect in many perplexing situations in which a person is not sure of himself and his actions. Then he needs to love honesty and sincerity, to admire courage and kindliness, and revere cooperation and ambition. Without this strong conviction of the worth of these qualities of character—so strong that he is resentful when he discovers them badly treated—he will not push through to the end of action and persistently carry through his programs.

It would appear, therefore, that three aims of character training stand out as of major importance in directing the efforts of the public schools. These are, first, to develop established traits of character and personality; second, to teach children to think their way through situations which involve these traits; and third, to generate in children an emotional conviction concerning the importance of certain qualities of character to them and to their generation.

Turning now to the second phase of our theme, we are ready to discuss the important methods by which these aims may be accomplished.

In this case, as in others, methods are implied in aims. When we know what we want to do we have one cue to the method by which to accomplish it. In this way we have within the statement of aims a collection of methods, of which I shall mention the most important.

First among the methods to be mentioned is the establishment of a curriculum. If we wish to develop traits of character and help the students to use them in coping with situations, it follows that we must first of all decide upon the fundamental traits which we shall teach. In spite of the shyness of certain people in the presence of analyses of traits of character, it is nevertheless true that we all believe that some traits are extremely important and that others are of lesser value. If this is the case, one should be quite willing to state as definitely as he can just what traits he is going to emphasize because of their importance. Such lists of traits appear as codes of ethics or as programs which interested faculties and individuals draw up for their own direction. In order that the child may develop competency in handling selected traits the most common, important, and difficult situations in which he finds himself are listed for purposes of discussion at appropriate times. From the application of appropriate traits to situations, behavior and conduct in the form of traits and actions develop in the teaching situation. In achieving the ends of character training it is important that the school know with great definiteness the fundamental traits that they hope to achieve in their children, the most significant and typical situations in which the children are likely to find themselves, and the appropriate lines of action to be followed in those situations.

In achieving the designated aims of education it must not be forgotten that pleasure and pain are essential stimuli to action. It is a psychological truism that action that is pleasurable is likely to be repeated, while the behavior that is unsatisfactory tends to disappear. Similarly, it is a pedagogical truism that good behavior should be reinforced by rewards and bad behavior should be accompanied by penalties. The rewards are, of course, of many kinds and embrace both the lowly and the exalted. The pain may be coarse or subtle. The schools will use both pleasure and pain. They will teach children that *in fact* to be good is to be happy. The school will regard the elder brother much more highly than the prodigal son. It will praise; it will prefer good action on the one hand; and it will censure bad behavior on the other.

Strange as it may seem, the principle of praise of good behavior has never been fully and warmly accepted by school people. Censure we have. Criticism we use. And both of them with freedom. Praise we use sparingly, for various reasons. We are afraid that it will make the children egotistical. We protect ourselves against the possibility of overpraise. We fear that tomorrow we may have to revoke the words that we used today. We are still vividly bearing upon us the marks of our Puritan ancestry. This is unfortunate, because it deprives us of the instruments of reward and pleasure and praise in our efforts to develop the fundamental traits of character. But, fortunately, as artistic technics develop, we are coming to use a well-balanced program of pleasure over the good and pain resulting from the bad in our public schools.

In our development of character we are coming to lay a great deal of stress upon extracurriculum activities. We are beginning to realize fully that regular classroom situations do not constitute an area sufficiently broad to cover all the problem. Believing as we do that the child must be taught specific forms of action in a variety of situations, we are forced to the position that extracurriculum activities are indispensable in a program of character education. It is indispensable because in these activities, outside of the regular classroom procedures, are found a multitude of situations which probably lie closer, and certainly do lie as close, to life as the regular classroom situation. If these situations lie close to the extra-school life of the child, while still within teaching radius, it is essential that we should help the children to develop the right forms of action in these situations which come within our field of action in the schools. Thus we reveal a tendency to integrate the socalled extracurriculum activities into the curriculum. We see football, baseball, dances, clubs, and hikes as opportunities for developing honesty, courtesy, courage, kindliness, and industry. Thus we are able to double the area within which we can develop traits of character. And some people have claimed that we can more than double the efficiency of character development because these extracurriculum activities lie closer to life than many of the formal exercises and situations of the classroom. The extracurriculum program of the school requires searching and intelligent attention by administrators and teachers so that, while, on the one hand, spontaneity is not squeezed out of extracurriculum life, well-bred behavior will become the standard of action.

Many other methods might be mentioned, but I shall close our discussion by calling attention to one of the most significant, and one of the least well developed methods of developing the aims of character training. I refer to the measurement of achievement. It is a fact of learning that children learn better if they can know how well they are achieving results through their efforts. It is an axiom of growth that one does not improve his technics unless he realizes their weakness. It is a matter of common knowledge that evidences of success encourage action. For all these reasons and others it is essential that the measurement of traits and qualities should be achieved. Unfortunately, however, not many of the fundamental traits can be accurately measured. It is difficult to demonstrate an increase in courtesy, unselfishness, industry, or honesty after a program of training has been carried through. A few of the less important traits, such as speed and accuracy, are measured in some type situations; but, on the whole, the fundamental traits have not yielded to attention, except partially, as in recent studies in connection with honesty. Yet it is important that measures should be devised, and, being important, it becomes the obligation of the school, through its research agencies, to develop technics that can be used for measurement. The task is difficult, but it is not insurmountable, and we may hope within a short time, as history is judged, to have effective methods of measuring the results of effort in connection with training for character.

It appears to me personally that the foregoing are the essential considerations in connection with the development of aims and methods of character training. Character training is given in the schools because fundamental traits of character and personality are essential in this world of change. In the development of these traits it is important that the method be that of reasoning and thought and that the goal should be emotional convictions concerning the value of traits. In achieving these aims a curriculum must be established, and particularly the era of extracurriculum activities should be utilized. Pleasure and pain in the form of rewards and punishments should be fully used in balanced form in developing right conduct and action. Persistent attention should be given to the development of measurements of traits and efficiency of teaching. With a program well-considered, systematically developed, and persistently followed—a program which contains the foregoing elements as essential factors in its structure and procedures—it is inevitable that the aims of character training will be secured with increasing efficiency and intelligence throughout the years.

Superintendent Glenn: In the opening address before the National Council of Education on Saturday morning Superintendent Randall Condon pointed out that this matter of Character Education was no new problem; that not only throughout the history of our own public school system in America, but throughout the history of all education it has been held up as the chief aim and goal.

Perhaps the most important question that faces us today is the measurement of results. As each of us in our several fields are making attempts to do this job, perhaps it is worthwhile to have someone analyze for us ways of testing results. The members of the Department of Superintendence know that the 1932 Yearbook of our Department is to be devoted to the subject of Character Education. A Commission has already been appointed and is at work. Superintendent Threlkeld is a member of that Commission, as is also the next speaker who is to appear on our program. It is my pleasure at this time to present Dr. Frank N. Freeman, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Chicago, who will speak on "Testing Results of Character Education."

THE MEASUREMENT OF RESULTS IN CHARACTER EDUCATION

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In many branches of education we now turn to scientific measurement as a means of evaluating the theories and practices which prevail. The proponents of new theories or new methods of instruction are asked to submit their theories and methods to scientific evaluation before they are accepted by the educational profession. While most students of the science of education do not yet assert that all our procedures have been subjected to accurate scientific evaluation, they incline to the opinion that such evaluation is theoretically possible and that it is simply a matter of time until we shall be able to make it.

The question with which this paper is concerned is whether this expectation is likely to be realized in the field of character education. Character education swarms with diverse theories and methods of procedure. One person believes in the direct method, another is equally convinced that the only successful procedure is the indirect method. One believes in the stimulation of the emotions, another in the development of adequate understanding of social situations. One places reliance upon giving children responsibility for their own conduct through the plan of selfgovernment or some other similar device. Another believes that control and discipline is essential. One believes that virtue should be rewarded, another that virtue is its own reward. One believes in the efficacy of selfanalysis, another that the child's attention should be directed outward and away from himself. Shall we be compelled to let the choice between theories and methods depend on which is pushed the most vigorously, or will it be possible to guide our choice by scientific evaluation?

Before trying to answer the question whether it is possible to evaluate character education scientifically, we should consider briefly what we mean by character and by character education. The meaning of character education, of course, depends upon the meaning of character itself. We cannot arrive at a complete definition of character education until we have defined what it is that we are trying to affect by character education.

There are some things that can be said about character education, however, which are independent of our definition of character itself, and which are not affected by the breadth or the narrowness of our definition of character. With the intensification of interest in character education, attempts are being made, and will be made even more frequently in the future, to identify character education with some specific device or method. In opposition to any such attempts by the advocates of specific devices to appropriate character education we should make it perfectly clear that character education includes any means which may be available to promote the development or the improvement of character. It includes all suitable methods and all effective forms of control or direction. It includes prevention as well as cure. It includes general as well as specific measures, provided both can be shown to be effective. The measurement of character education, therefore, must include the measurement of the results of all of these measures and not only of specific devices.

We come to the heart of our problem when we ask ourselves what the nature of character is. The term "character" may be used in three senses. According to the first use it merely designates the sum total of the characteristics of the individual. It is a purely descriptive as distinguished from a normative term. To indicate a person's character in this sense would be to say whether he is rapid or slow in his reactions, whether he is energetic or feeble, whether he is aggressive or meek, whether he is persistent or vacillating, and so on. The sum total of such characteristics makes up what we call the individual's personality. The descriptive account of one's personality involves in the first instance no judgment as to whether the various characteristics are desirable or undesirable. This purely descriptive account of the individual's characteristics may be followed up by later judgment concerning them; and the discovery of methods of analyzing character in this descriptive sense may contribute toward the evaluation of character in the normative sense. But description may be carried on independently of evaluation.

Character may be looked on, in the second place, as made up of the characteristics of an individual evaluated as desirable or undesirable with reference to the individual's own welfare or success. In this sense one may be spoken of as having a strong character or a weak character. These terms are used in something more than a descriptive sense, but they have reference chiefly to the individual as an individual rather than as a member of a group. Thus, one my have a strong character and carry out his purposes with energy and persistence, although those purposes are inimical to the interest of the community. The individual may have his impulses and desires under firm control and may be able to subordinate his momentary impulses toward distant ends. These characteristics might be considered as desirable from the point of view of the organization of the individual's personality, but they would not warrant us saying that the person's character was good from the point of view of the group, because the purposes which were thus carried out might be of a narrowly selfish order. If the individual saw far enough, of course, he would realize that the ultimate satisfaction of his own interest is to be attained only by working for the interest of the group. Many individuals, however, do not recognize this, and the result is that character defined from the individual point of view often takes on a different complexion from character looked on from the point of view of society.

Finally, then, we must define character in terms of behavior considered in its social setting and its bearing on the welfare of the group as a whole.

From this point of view the development and organization of the traits of the individual are important, but they are only important because they make the individual more or less effective in his relations with his fellow men. The individual is a unit in a great social organism. We can only evaluate this unit as we know how it plays its part in the organism as a whole. If it is a destructive agency and if it exercises its power toward sinister ends its character must be judged as bad even though it possesses great strength. It is this social conception of character which education must keep steadily before it as the goal of character education.

One more comment on the meaning of character. We may think of character as made up of behavior or of overt actions, on the one hand, or we may think of it as made up of the traits or characteristics which manifest themselves in overt behavior, on the other hand. Action is the final test of character, but it is sometimes more convenient to describe the traits and characteristics which commonly express themselves in given types of behavior than it is to describe the behavior by which these traits are expressed. Whenever we describe traits or characteristics, we should always keep in mind the fact that they are significant only as they find expression in behavior. Among these traits or characteristics should be included all which may have an influence on behavior. If intelligence or other intellectual characteristics influence behavior they should be taken into account. If attitudes, either those which have been built up through experience or those which express the inherent nature of the individual, affect behavior they should be studied. If behavior is influenced by emotions they should be taken into account. Our view of character and of character education must be broad enough to include all the factors which influence behavior.

Let us examine these different elements in character somewhat further. An incomplete view of character will result in an incomplete conception of character education and also an incomplete measurement of character.

The part which intelligence or understanding plays in character is not always clearly recognized. If, however, we judge character in terms of socially constructive behavior, it must be evident that understanding has a large part to play in it. Benevolent intentions alone do not make conduct wholesome in its effect. Good intentions frequently shoot wide of the mark because of the failure of the individual to conceive the situation correctly. One may intend one thing and achieve another because one is not able to foresee the consequences of one's act. The way one conceives the situation may also determine the feelings which are aroused by it, and thus influence the response indirectly as well as directly.

It is hardly necessary to stress the fact that the emotions are important factors in conduct. Our everyday observation that anger or fear may becloud a person's judgment is confirmed by the analysis of the conduct of both children and adults which is made by the psychologist and the psychiatrist. Emotions, on the other hand, may energize and promote desirable conduct. The problem lies in the control of the emotions and in their attachment to the right object.

Somewhat like emotions in their bearing on conduct are attitudes. Our attitude toward an object is made up partly of our ideas about it and our feelings toward it. Attitudes might almost be called incipient actions or predispositions toward action. Attitudes as determiners of conduct must also be included in our notion of character.

Finally, we must take notice of habits. Habits represent an element of inertia in conduct. This inertia may be good or bad according to the original character of the habits and their relation to the demands of particular situations. Habits are sometimes regarded as the sum and substance of character. Because they do determine behavior to a large extent they must be given an important place in the description of character. Because habits can be modified, however, and because the individual is frequently unable to make the necessary modification of his habits in order to secure a better adjustment to the world in which he lives, habits must not be regarded as the whole of character.

If we accept this account of what character is we must now turn to the question as to what education can do about it. If education can affect these characteristics of the individual, it can affect character, and the methods by which they can be changed are the methods of character education. The measurement of the effects which are produced by such education, moreover, will be the measurement of character education.

It is clear that one of the aims of education from time immemorial is to direct the development of the child's understanding. In recent years we have become aware of the fact that the understanding of the world about him which the child can attain is limited to some extent by his native capacity or by his intelligence. It may seem a far call from the use of intelligence tests to character education but there is after all a rather important and direct connection between the two. If the child, for example, is not capable of understanding the complex relations which make up the social and political life of a modern city, he will not be able to grasp the sinister significance of the prevalence of graft in municipal government. The scope and methods of character education will then be determined in some measure by the determination of the child's intelligence and the level of his intellectual maturity.

Assuming the necessary intelligence, the education of character on the intellectual side would seem to take two forms. The first is the development of correct basic conceptions of social life, and of the world in which one lives, and second, the development of the ability to solve problems. An understanding of society and of the principles which govern the organization of persons into groups furnishes the background for the solution of those particular problems which confront the individual. Social science, treated both as a body of facts and as an exercise in thinking, is the substance of character education on its intellectual side.

When we consider the emotions we are confronted with the same combination of inborn dispositions and of the effects of experience and training. The violence or the placidity of one's emotions and perhaps the predisposition to emotions of one sort or another, such, for example, as elation or depression, may be constitutional. Persons of one constitutional temperament may then require different treatment from those of quite a different temperament; but whether they are treated differently or not the emotional expression of all persons is influenced to a large degree by environment and training. As has already been remarked, one's emotional expression will depend to a considerable extent on one's ideas. If one, for example, believes that an apparent affront is a deliberate insult, one's emotions will be quite different from that which will be aroused if one interprets the action as an unintentional blunder. Beyond this it is possible by training to develop general emotional control.

Habits also are chiefly learned and, therefore, due to education broadly conceived. Human beings doubtless possess certain general impulses or urges which are the common sources of the motivation of conduct. The point is that the same general impulses, such as the desire for recognition, may find its expression in a variety of ways. We need to understand how the child's acts go back to these fundamental urges, but we need also to recognize that the particular expression which they take and the habits into which they become crystallized can very largely be determined by the treatment the child receives.

We now come, after this lengthy running start, to the problem of measurement itself. The purpose of the preceding discussion has been to indicate what it is we should attempt to measure. We shall now inquire how these elements of character may be measured and what success has been attained in devising measures for them.

The fact that some of the features of behavior, or factors in behavior, which have been mentioned, include some innate elements might suggest that these should be measured separately and taken into account in evaluating education, and predicting its possibilities. It might be desirable, if we could do so, to thus separate the innate elements from those which are acquired. Some attempts have been made to do this in the case of intelligence and of will temperament or emotional temperament. The effort has, perhaps, been most successful in the case of intelligence; but even here we must admit that we are measuring the combination of capacity and the effects of education. Without attempting strictly to isolate the innate factors it still seems likely that tests which are designed so far as possible to reveal the child's native constitution will serve as a rough guide in differentiating the methods to be pursued in influencing the behavior of individual children.

For this purpose we now possess reasonably satisfactory tests of intelligence. In the field of will temperament and emotional temperament, however, the attempt to devise appropriate tests has thus far not been highly successful. The differences which these tests measure may be significant, but we have not yet discovered what their significance is. Certain tests have been devised for the purpose of measuring neurotic disposition. The best known example is the Woodworth-Mathews Questionnaire. Since nervous stability or instability is unquestionably a factor in conduct, the measurement of neurotic tendencies should be of some value in enabling us to deal with the individuals who possess them. Such tests, therefore, give promise of usefulness, although they are not yet far enough developed for general use in dealing with the individual child.

The tests which have been mentioned are not so much designed for the measurement of the effect of character education as for the measurement of certain factors which have to be taken into account in character education. There is a type of measurement of emotion, however, which may be used somewhat more directly. This consists of the emotional changes which take place upon having certain experiences. Take, for example, the case of erotic emotions. Parents and educators are much interested in the question whether certain types of motion pictures produce an undue development of such erotic emotions. If we can measure these emotions by the socalled psycho-galvanic reflex method, or by other methods, we can then determine whether emotions which are aroused by the motion picture in question increase or decrease upon repeated viewings of this type of picture. This determination of whether the emotion increases or decreases in intensity would not give a complete answer to the question whether the effect is good or bad. But it would at least provide us with some solid facts which would contribute toward the solution of the problem.

We approach somewhat more closely to the direct measure of the results of character education in the use of tests to measure the understanding of moral issues. A number of tests have been devised requiring the child to rank offences in the order of their seriousness, or in some way to evaluate their gravity. Somewhat similar tests have been worked out to measure the child's understanding of social usages. The relation between good manners or conformity to social usage and good behavior in the ethical sense is probably much closer than we commonly suppose. Such information tests or tests of understanding are not yet sufficiently comprehensive to enable us to measure the child thoroughly, but they enable us to trace some of the relations existing between understanding and other factors such as intelligence and character of the child's home.

It may be objected that when we measure understanding we are not measuring behavior and that there is no guaranty that conduct will accord with knowledge. It is true that conduct is affected by other factors, such as the emotional factor, as has already been said, but it is probable that the disharmony, which sometimes seems to exist between knowledge and conduct, is due not to a real contradiction between the two, but to the fact that apparent knowledge is not real understanding. It may only be an imitative repetition of the opinion of others. Furthermore, while understanding may not guarantee conduct corresponding to it, a failure to correctly comprehend the situation is pretty likely to produce conduct which is inappropriate to it. If education which is directed toward the improvement of conduct, then, can be shown to produce a substantial improvement in the comprehension of social situations by children, we have good reason to expect that it will produce an improvement in their conduct.

Attitudes have been described as potential or incipient forms of conduct. If changes in attitude are produced by education, then, there is good reason to think that important changes in conduct will accompany them. Various types of tests and scales for the measurement of attitude have been devised and these scales have shown that there are characteristic differences in the attitudes of different people, and that definite changes in attitude may be produced by means of instruction. This has been shown to be true of specific attitudes toward particular objects or persons. Whether it is also true of more generalized attitudes has not yet been demonstrated. If the object of instruction is to produce definite attitudes, it now seems quite possible to devise scales which will enable us to measure the success of education in accomplishing this object.

The argument thus far has been that understanding, emotion, and attitude underlie conduct, that education directed toward the modification of these factors is character education and that the measurement of changes in understanding, emotion, or attitude is a measurement of the result of character education. We need not rest content, however, with the measurement of underlying factors but may undertake a direct measurement of behavior itself. This has been attempted with a number of forms of behavior. Those which have the most direct bearing upon social adjustment are measures of trustworthiness, truthfulness, and honesty. It will be seen that these forms of behavior are very closely alike and might even be considered as different manifestations of the same underlying form.

The most extensive experiments in the direct measurement of behavior are the studies of truthfulness and honesty by Hartshorne and May. These studies deal only with a small section of behavior and the authors themselves regard their extensive tests as constituting still only a very incomplete measure of these forms of behavior. They are extensive enough, however, to make it possible to work out certain correlations and to compare the behavior of groups of children who have been given different forms of treatment. A single illustration will suffice, since the method has only been carried far enough thus far to indicate the possible uses of the technic and has not yet been applied widely enough to enable us to make any general evaluation of prevailing methods of character education. The example in question, however, is striking.

In a certain school, in which the tests of deception were given, an organization existed for the purpose of interesting school children in the achievement of virtues through practise. "When we encountered this scheme," the authors report, "each child was expected to keep a daily record of certain good deeds (among which were truth telling) ; and, to stimulate him in his efforts and so make sure that each virtue was properly practised, he was rewarded for a good record by being advanced in the organization from rank to rank. Obviously a premium was placed on making a good showing." When the boys that belonged to this organization were compared on five tests with those who did not belong, the boys who had been subjected to this method of character education cheated much more than the others in four out of five tests. Several other comparisons were made, such as between children who receive religious instruction and those who do not, or between children of different degrees of intelligence, different social economic status, different occupational level of parents, different religious affiliations, and so on. Two small and, therefore, inconclusive experiments on the effect of teaching honesty are reported. Since it is not the purpose of this paper to summarize the results of measurements in the field of character education, this investigation is referred to only to illustrate the possibilities of such measurement.

The foregoing discussion has shown that it is possible to evaluate or to measure certain factors which underlie the practise of character education and that in a few specific instances it is possible to evaluate the results of character education. The technics which are now available, however, cover such a small portion of the entire field that they serve simply to illustrate the possibility of applying the technic of scientific measurement to this as to other fields of education.

Before attempting to sum up the entire question some notice should be given to a quite radically different form of procedure. The method which has been described falls under the general head of the technic of standardized tests. Such tests are used commonly to measure rather narrow and specific functions with a high degree of accuracy in the case of a large number of individuals. The other method consists in applying a large number of methods of measurement or a large number of observations in the study of one individual at a time. This is sometimes called the case study method. In its most highly developed form this intensive study of an individual is continued throughout a considerable period of time. The method is illustrated by Healy's study of delinquents. This method of study is capable of yielding convincing evidence concerning the causes of good or bad behavior on the part of the individual, and concerning the effect of methods of treatment which may be applied to him. It is complementary to the method of the standardized test. It makes use of standardized tests and increases in accuracy and completeness as more and more standardized tests are developed.

We have now reviewed a number of methods which have been applied to the study of behavior and which may be applied with greater or less success to the measurement of the results of character education. Do these methods taken singly or together constitute an adequate means at the present time to evaluate scientifically the general program of character education? Probably not. The many features of such a program would at present have to be evaluated in large part on other grounds. Recourse might be had, for example, to general educational theories, general psychology, psychology of learning and individual differences, and observation of the results of instruction. We may, however, even now, evaluate provisionally certain particular procedures which may be used. The unfavorable result of one of the rather widely used methods, which has already been cited, should warn us to be critical of mushroom systems of character education. We can afford to wait with some patience the development of further scientific methods of evaluation rather than introduce into the school too hastily a host of untried and dubious methods.

CHARACTER EDUCATION IN THE REGULAR CURRICULUM

A. L. THRELKELD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.

I have not prepared a paper for this afternoon for many reasons. Perhaps one of them was suggested to me by a remark that Mark Twain made once. When somebody asked him if he always wrote exactly what he thought, he said, "Yes, I always do but I am very careful to modify it before I send it to the printer." So I felt I wanted to say some things rather directly about the situation in the curriculum of our schools, and that if I thought about it too long I might not say exactly what I thought. Then upon getting here I find there is a stenographer present, that what one says is likely to be reported anyhow, and that scared me again.

I feel we have some matters to consider with regard to what we attempt to teach in our schools that require a great deal of character, if I may put it that way, on our part. Dr. Charters has spoken about certain traits that he believes constitute good character. Among them he mentioned the trait of courage. I wonder if, in dealing with, let us say, our high-school program of studies and presenting it to the young people who enrol in our high schools today, we have the courage to present to them in that program that which we think ought to be presented. And if we do not have the courage to do what we think ought to be done in the way of reorganizing our program of studies at any point, are we in a very good position to attempt to teach courage to boys and girls?

From another point of view it might be pointed out that one of the characteristics of character, if I may use that terminology, is the disposition to face realities. The strong person has a tendency to face realities without flinching, to face them directly, to be forthright and all which that implies. I am told by psychiatrists that one of the outstanding symptoms of a certain mental disorder is the tendency to shrink from reality, simply to flee from it and refuse to face it. I get the suggestion once in awhile, after I consider what we have insisted upon teaching in our traditional courses of study, that in education we have been guilty of some mental disorder of this kind: that we have shrunk from realities and have gone ahead presenting to our boys and girls courses of study which evolved in a situation no longer with us, and that we are leaving out of our program of studies many problems that we could take up which are obviously pertinent to the present situation. We need, then, to practise the courage which we preach to these young people.

I am one of those who believe, and I realize the force of the statement that every generation has felt it faced problems far more difficult than any preceding, that somehow as a result of this industrial revolution and all of our mechanical inventions we are facing problems today of a social character that are much more acute than any people have had to face in any period of which we have any record; that in education there is a tremendous lag behind of the change that has been made in society in general; and that we have in the main a program of studies which is far behind the actual needs of life.

In Dr. George Albert Coe's recent book "What Is Christian Education?" I believe he makes a statement that a young man in the early nineteenth century was much closer in all the life that he touched to the year one than he was to the year 1930.

In discussing the need of a program of new humanities in education, Dr. Ross L. Finney, in his book "The Sociological Philosophy of Education" makes the statement that "for putting our young democracies to death without bloodletting or commotion, Latin, mathematics, rhetoric, and foreign languages would have proved the most effective brand of chloroform that could have been devised."

This may be an extreme statement. I want to make it clear that I believe the teaching of those subjects has a place at certain points in our educational scheme. In fairness to the author just quoted I want to say that he does not rule these subjects out of a place in the curriculum. But I think you will agree that to the extent that we have worshipped at the shrine of teaching the mere forms by which we express ourselves, we have anesthetized ourselves concerning the more vital things for which we need expression, that we have taken up a great deal of time in the typical high-school student's curriculum with certain training which is not directly related to any of the social problems which he will face and which he cannot face unless he has developed the proper intelligence and character for facing them.

In this there is a great responsibility for us. It is pointed out by the same author that "excessive attention to the forms of language may be quite properly suspected as a symptom either of social degeneracy or else of a serious educational lag. Certain episodes in the history of education would seem to indicate that when civilization is growing sterile or becoming moribund the forms of language tend to dominate the curriculum, to the detriment of actual subject matter." Is it not true that we have dealt more in education with the forms by which we are to express ourselves than we have in the development of that sensitivity toward the needs of life which is necessary as a basis for an urge to say and do?

It has always seemed to me that most of the boys and girls I have known will go a good distance themselves toward finding the ways by which things are to be said and done if a real desire to say and do something is developed within them. We have been placing the emphasis, I believe, too much in the wrong place so far as the traditional curriculum is concerned. Should we not become thoroughly aroused to this fact? There has been some awakening, to be sure, but there is still much slumbering while democracy may be burning or dying for want of intelligent study.

Now to get more concretely to what I have in mind, I just wrote down here a list of questions that came to my mind in trying to evaluate the traditional program of studies from the point of view of its addressing itself to the big problems that all people are concerned about today who do any thinking at all on life as it is.

What are the social implications, for example, of the concentration of economic power in the hands of the few?

I know it is dangerous to raise a question like that, for immediately someone wonders whether the person raising it is an anarchist, a bolshevist, or something of that kind, yet I claim I am not any of these. I am not even a Socialist; I believe in the institution of private property. I am merely raising a question here which is getting much attention outside of school. Is it not interesting to consider that we have gone through a period in the evolution of civilization in which we did trust political autocracy so we no longer need fear discussing political democracy in our schools? We long since came to distrust political autocracy. We even came to hate it, and we set up a form of government in this country presumably making a political autocracy impossible. We have listened to the argument that a good autocrat is the best governor and under a good autocracy perhaps we could have the very best form of government, but we have learned we cannot always have a good autocrat in office and we would rather trust to the bungling ways of a democracy than to depend upon having a good autocrat in political office all the time. Of course there are other considerations that bear on this issue too. But have we evolved the same degree of intelligence with regard to another method of control which is exercised over people, a control that certainly is as vital as any control that was ever exercised through political channels, namely, economic control? It is of tremendous significance that there are a few individuals controlling enough of the economic goods of this country to have the welfare of hundreds of thousands, even millions, of people in their hands with relatively little enforceable responsibility to anybody except themselves concerning what they do with that power. Perhaps this is the best that can be done about it. I realize that many of them through their own goodness have evolved a sense of social responsibility. I am not among those who think that as a class those who possess this power are bad. But we were not willing to leave political power in that status and I wonder if in the future we will be willing to leave economic power in that status when it affects large numbers of people. We see beginnings now along the line of government regulation of industry at certain points. There is a tremendous issue here about which our young people need to develop their intelligence. They will be able to meet the issue only to the extent that they develop proper character to face it courageously and the necessary intelligence to be constructive about it.

Why distrust then a political autocracy and trust an economic one? Is the latter any safer than the former, even as economics? Can we conclude that as political autocracy has had its day, so economic autocracy will some day have passed into history?

This is just a little comment by way of illustration which I picked out of the Journal of the National Education Association some issues ago. It appeared in an editorial in which it was revealed that there are eleven thousand people in the United States at this time who, on the basis of net incomes reported to the United States Government for taxation—incomes reported after every deduction presumably had been made that could be made under the law—eleven thousand people who could pay the entire bill of education in this country from the kindergarten through the university. This is presented not as something necessarily wrong but merely as an illustration of a condition and possibly to show that there are, notwithstanding the hue and cry about the cost of education, at least some people in the country who have not been bankrupted by school taxes or any other kind.

Another problem: Does our taxation system need reform and how much consciousness of that problem does the typical high-school graduate have? Has his school life developed in him a sensitivity toward that problem? Has his desire to do something good for society in connection with it been developed by anything which we have given him in our schools?

Do we not need to consider the changed character of wealth, whether there have arisen new sources of wealth which need to be taxed and old sources that should be taxed less in the interest of fairness? Do we not need to consider that certain centers of wealth in this country may be hundreds of miles from the territories from which they draw their wealth, and that any equitable and fair system of taxation will tax that wealth where it is and invest it where it will do the most good for the country as a whole? How equalization of economic and other types of opportunity is involved in this one issue alone, it seems to me, is something we need to study. Are not these questions involved in the development of character?

What is the meaning of unemployment in this country or any other country? Is it a necessary social fact?

One of the most outstanding of business men in the United States is recently reported by the press to have said in a public address that unemployment is not necessary; that it is merely a symptom of our stupidity concerning our social problems.

What is the meaning of this talk about overproduction of the world's goods when we have millions of people starving for the want of those goods? Is it a fact that we have specialized throughout the machine age up to date in production and have not sufficiently studied technics of distribution and consumption of the world's goods?

Is it not on this latter side that we have our great opportunity to serve the welfare of humanity? Production is a wonderful thing for civilization if we solve the problem of distribution and elevate the standards and capacities of consumption on the part of the masses of people.

How do elevating the standards of living, the facts of income possibilities, and the like, affect the home? Is it presumptuous to raise a question like this with young people today? I have cause to believe that they are raising it themselves, whether we raise it with them or not.

What are we going to do about sex education? Most of us, I know, prefer that it be cared for in the home by parents; but if the home does not do it, then what? Does not the history of education clearly show that out of sheer social necessity the school comes to assume those vital educational functions which are not carried out by other institutions? Certainly there is a need here which has to be met; and, if I may be pardoned this personal illustration, it has not been long since a young man just out of one of our high schools came to me personally, having heard me talk to a group of boys at a dinner in which I merely made reference to the question, did not discuss it, and told me that it was a common thing for the boys and girls in the high school he had attended—and this was a splendid young man, a very responsible young citizen—to discuss this matter among themselves, even at the cafeteria table. And yet we are afraid, perhaps properly so, at this time—I do not know—to give that subject any attention, or much attention.

Is there any substitute for the home as the basic group unit of society?

I have a feeling that in all that has been said to the young people of this country concerning the home, in all of our tirade against some extreme measures that have been suggested, such as companionate marriage and the like, we have not presented to our young people in our high schools—and I believe they are old enough there to understand it—the scientific necessity of the home as an institution in our civilization and the fact that no sociologist has been able to suggest any substitute for the home as the basic group unit of our society. We have just preached to them on that and we have never analyzed the situation with them in order to see why it is that this monogamous home in which we believe is so essential to the development of everything that we consider right in character.

Is there any substitute for personality in civilization? Is anything worth as much in any civilization as the development of personality? Many have raised the question whether our tremendous development in industrial technic in this western civilization has not tended to smother personality, to subordinate the individual and make him only a means to an end, which idea is never respectful of personality. They ask if we could not so engineer this new order that its virtues, which are surely many and great, could be had without the sacrifice of the greatest life value of all, namely, personality? Anyway, without this latter value, can any of the other values be maintained?

Other questions that easily come to mind but for which time will not here be taken for discussion are: What adjustments need to be made in methods of farming? What new considerations concerning the tariff policies of our federal government are suggested by present worldwide, as well as domestic, economic facts? What is the war phenomenon in the light of modern conditions and what might be done about it? What are the facts involved in race prejudice?

Should not the social sciences deal directly with these and other issues and in so doing perhaps become the core of the curriculum? Would this not represent a fundamental in character education which we should effect as a first consideration? Rightly interpreted, it would bring into proper relationship to character development all vocational and technical education, with which I certainly do not attempt to find any fault; that is all very essential. It would properly relate the teaching of esthetics to the whole purpose of life by developing the individual's appreciation of beauty as a personality value. All these considerations would center around the question: How can we best live together? And in the answer to this question character is to be found.

In the social science field today, as many people have pointed out, we are facing many of the same obstacles that were met by the physical scientists in the time of Gallileo. He, you know, was called to task and on penalty of death made to retract his theory concerning the shape and movements of the earth. But the physical scientist has established himself and today we are willing to accept anything that comes out of a physical science laboratory. Regardless of the trouble sometimes caused over the discussion of evolution, the physical scientist is accepted; he is respectable. In other words, he has, if you will pardon this expression, "put over" his ideas. But the social scientist is meeting with the same closed-mindedness, the same intolerance, and in some cases even with the same persecution that was first given to the physical scientists when they began to talk about ideas that were contrary to Aristotle and contrary to the accepted systems of theology and philosophy.

There is something very interesting again in Dr. Coe's statement that the state schools as a whole have been much more progressive in dealing with issues in the physical sciences than the schools of religious education. But when it comes to reshaping courses of study and programs of study so as to address them to social problems, he claims—I do not know whether it is right or not; I am merely quoting him—that the schools of religious education have been much freer and have gone much further than the state schools; and the implication of it is that those of us who work in state schools are afraid when we take up any of these social questions that somebody will attack us and probably it will be somebody in authority and we had better look out.

Is it dangerously radical merely to raise these questions and suggest that they merit study in our schools at those ages where it is pedagogically proper to take them up? I want to emphasize the word "study" in the connection in which it is here used. To me this does not mean that we shall indoctrinate; that we shall approach these issues with preconceived notions that we want to "put over" on the pupils. It means just what it says, that we "study" these matters, teacher and class together, with open minds. If these are questions which have to be met, they will be met in some way; and the person who is most responsible for the production of the rabid, thoughtless, destructive, radical in connection with all of these issues is the ultra-conservative who will not allow these things to be discussed and always tries to sit on the lid and hold everything back until those who are trying to push things forward are desperate, and something in the way of an upheaval or revolution occurs as a natural consequence. If we could just be open-minded about these things and approach them with "character," there would be no cause for alarm. Progress in education as well as in the business world and in other phases of our life would be a steady, consistent process that need not alarm anybody and yet would cause our educational program and the whole of life to become more unified and constructive.

Rather than to approach the problem of character education by specialized courses and departments dealing in the abstract with traits and attitudes and the like, should we not as a fundamental first step address our school programs of study to the realities of life? Is it not in dealing with these realities that character is developed? Can they be escaped in life at large outside of school? If it is not proper for the schools to deal with these realities, then is it possible for the schools to do anything that is very far reaching in the development of character?

I believe much progress has been made in recent years in adjusting our courses of study and curriculums to the real problems of life. I also believe that formal education as a whole still lags behind life as it is outside of school by at least a generation. The point that I have attempted to make here is that we should not be led astray in our present consideration of character education, which now is getting so much of our attention, by considerations of narrow specific schemes, while overlooking the real challenge to our professional character contained in the discrepancy between the realities of life at large and the things we teach in school. With regard to the realities let us not as a profession drift into a state of dementia præcox, whose first symptom, we are told by the psychiatrist, is a tendency to shrink from realities.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

CHARLES S. MEEK, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, TOLEDO, OHIO

The advantage of being asked to lead a discussion is that no one expects much of the one who leads the discussion, since the audience is sufficiently inspired and fatigued already. I am very glad in this discussion that not one of these papers has made any suggestion or referred to the erroneous methods of measuring character development. We have all heard of an appalling number of pupils in the schools who cheat in examination and regard that as a measure in character. Dr. Freeman has spoken about the cultivation of attitudes. The ordinary examination in the college and school is now a trial of wit between the pupil and teacher; the teacher trying to find out something that the student does not know, and the student trying to prevent the professor from discovering that which he does not know. Consequently it is a game and the students, if this enormous cheating is true, have simply shown more ingenuity in the game than the professor has, and it has nothing to do with the problem of the measure of character, according to my conception of it.

Then there is a certain society that has conducted very extensively in this country a test to try individual pupils. The teachers in many schools were asked to make previous arrangements with a nearby drugstore for the project. Then the child was given thirty cents and told to go to the drug store, get a certain toilet article, pay thirty cents for it, and bring it back to the teacher. The child took the thirty cents and according to previous arrangement, was told by the salesman that the article was on sale, and available at twenty-five cents. The problem was to measure honesty by determining how many would return the five cents and report to the teacher that the article was cheaper than he thought. Of course the great majority of them did not report the five cents. Again the presumption is that the great majority of them were dishonest.

This has to do with a general situation and the problem of attitude. I have little confidence in the great number of these historical methods of measuring the honesty of problems in this day. Yet we all know that it may be measured.

Nearly twenty years ago, before the Department of Superintendence, the problem then in its infancy was arousing a great deal of discussion. One of the old-timers said, "Can you measure the art of a Shakespearian play? Can you measure the beauty of an Italian sunset? Then it is a formal challenge. Can you measure the mother's love?" And the man who replied said, "Yes, you can measure a mother's love by the determining how well she induces her children to behave, how neatly she dresses them, and how cleanly she keeps them."

In the schools there are many ways in which character is being measured by challenges that it did not have in the old days; for instance, the problem of putting the accountability on the students, they themselves assuming the management of the whole situation. May I present an example?

In a certain school system a publicity enterprise was conducted by having ten schools in a circuit furnish a page of news on a certain day to the afternoon paper. Two editors were selected from each school. The editor from one school took charge of the page one Thursday and then they went the circuit of the ten schools to get the news and arrange it. The next week another school would be responsible. When the children of a poor school went to a school where the parents were more fortunately endowed, the two local reporters took the visiting reporters into a room and someone said aloud, "Why, who are the rubes you have with you?" An embarrassed silence followed and immediately after the visitors went out of the room the children themselves went into a committee as a whole to determine what they should do about that matter. They decided that a committee of their own number should take that boy over into the homeroom of their guests and have him apologize for that discourtesy.

That is just one illustration of hundreds of challenges that have to do with a better and more direct moral education. As far as I am concerned I am decidedly hopeful. I am not at all impressed by pessimistic reports. I am sure from this discussion this afternoon that objectives will be formulated presently. We know, too, that methods of measuring our achievements will be improved and developed as they are in other educational enterprises. In the meantime, however, I feel that the attitude of the pupils toward all standards of the schools is being improved now immeasurably above what it was before, and I have no anxiety about these historical reports which come to us showing the low moral standard of the pupils of this generation. I believe, however, that the best type of moral instruction, until a better is formulated, is the indirect, that which builds conduct out of the challenge to the pupils themselves to develop their own atmosphere, to improve their own attitude, and to take pride in their own achievements. I think at this time there are better ways of developing character education and better methods of measuring achievement than there have ever been before.

Mr. Glenn: Thank you, Superintendent Meek. I wonder if in this audience there are those who would challenge the statement that the amount of cheating in the school is not a measure of honesty or dishonesty of the group and that the fact that these children did not bring back the nickel in change does or does not indicate their honesty? It is open for your discussion, or any other subject that you wish to inquire about, or statement you wish to make.

Dr. Hulfish (*Ohio State University*)*:* I am curious about one thing that appeared in the last two papers with reference to the social sciences. I am certainly willing to go with the speakers in lending whatever emphasis one may to the social sciences as an effective area for the training of character, but I am wondering if it is not desirable, perhaps, to emphasize all of the area? That is to say, if I understand Mr. Freeman at all, he certainly is placing a tremendous emphasis upon, shall I say training in thinking, and if that is true as a road to character, then all subjects become, perhaps, as effective as the social sciences? I am raising it as a question, simply because the social science area was the one area that was emphasized in the last two speeches.

Dr. Freeman: I think I can say very briefly why I consider the social sciences as particularly valuable for that purpose. It seems to me that all the subjects, that is at least a considerable number of the subjects, are valuable as a means of training the child to think, but in the case of other subjects, like mathematics for example, it is the form which is of value. That is, it does give the child training in thinking but the content of the subject-matter with which he is thinking is of neutral value so far as conduct is concerned. The child learns to think about mathematical questions and that may carry over to a certain extent to his thinking about other questions, but the mathematical question is not directly going to affect his conduct to any substantial degree. However, in the case of social sciences he is learning to think but he is learning also to think about problems which are problems of conduct. That is they underlie problems of conduct. It seems to me, therefore, in the social sciences you have peculiar value because that value relates not only to the form of training and thinking but also to a better understanding of the situation, the social situation, the reaction to which constitutes one's conduct.

Dr. Jones (Clark University): This matter of Character Education always assumes that the teacher will know the right choice. I wish to connect that particular thing with something Superintendent Meek mentioned and I would like to conduct a brief experiment right here. Superintendent Meek mentioned the experiment of the boy and the drugstore. I wish to know whether you think that experimental proposition in every school system is really excusable or is it wrong? I wish to know to what extent we can experiment in the public schools in this matter without doing damage to the children? If you would be willing to vote on that I should like to have a showing of hands on how many think, in a public school system, an experiment of that sort with 500 children would be justifiable? How many think it would be all right? Would you be willing to raise your hands on that?

(A few hands were raised.)

Superintendent Glenn: I think we may say if conducted with proper safeguard it would be all right.

Dr. Hulfish: The problem is whether this experiment is justified or not. How many would say that is a right experiment? (Some hands were raised.) How many would say such an experiment would be wrong? (A greater number of hands were raised than before.)

The points there are obviously two. First, we disagree very greatly among ourselves as to what is right and what is wrong. The second point is that in attempting this matter in the school systems, in experimenting on it, we often run against the problem of definite ideas as to whether or not the proposal or the experiment, if carried out, will itself be a damaging experiment.

Mr. Moore (Franklin High School, Los Angeles, Calif.): I believe that much of our development of character in the school should begin with ourselves because of the fact that we have all, in the main, come from more favored homes, because of the fact that we have certainly been favored in the matter of opportunities, and we oftentimes do not realize, even working in districts where there are favored homes, and more often we do not when working in districts where the homes are not favored, whether the children with whom we come in contact are familiar with certain ideals that are taken for granted by us.

We had a case where our viceprincipal could not get a girl to see, with the background that she had had, that there was anything wrong in things that seemed to her perfectly simple and natural. I should like to use one other illustration. I have never yet found a case of what we thought was serious plagiarism, of a pupil's using an oration or an outline of a debate or story, in which it did not turn out that the pupil either had no idea, or a very hazy idea, as to what constituted honor in that respect. In our ordinary class exercises we pass over a recitation and exercise that involves almost word for word a repetition of another's ideas and think nothing of it, but let it come to a contest where there is a prize involved, and then the further the contest goes, the more searching the scrutiny of that oration, or of that paper, or that reading of the story. Then there is a great shock when we find a prize winner has copied almost word for word someone else's writing. It seems to me those schools that have gotten out a little book outlining certain fundamental principles of honesty and ethics and procedure have gone a long way toward making a proper contribution to character training.

Dr. Miller (University of Pennsylvania): I would like to direct attention to one aspect of this problem for a moment. I think it suffuses the whole question of school efficiency in dealing with the problem. I will illustrate first by concrete cases, then draw the general conclusion.

In a certain institution the social science teachers presumably were teaching the precepts and suggested duty, the principles of conduct and illustrating them, exemplifying them in their own actions in everyday life as well as in professional actions. It so happened that this institution was sending an artcraft exhibit to a great fair. They took the first prize. Traveling on the train after the fair was over, in a conversation with the director of art, he inadvertently told some of us that he was very proud of the exhibit, but he said, "Do you know, fellows, I had to put the finishing touches on every one of those drawings myself!" Now the students knew he had put the finishing touches on the drawings himself, and they knew they were represented to the people who saw them as the work of pupils.

Those of us who are intimately associated with character education of the boyhood and girlhood of this country must realize the influence such acts must have upon boys and girls. I need but to refer to the situation resulting from punishments administered to children for offenses which the parents themselves commit and which the children are aware of and know. What we need more than anything else in our relation to the boy and girl is frankness and consistency between our conduct and precepts.

A striking illustration of this came under my observation, which I used one time in talking to a chamber of commerce in a city of a half million people, and at a time when the employer in question was in the group. It was during the war. A very splendid, upstanding, upright young man had secured employment with this employer and was so dependable and efficient he got increasingly important assignments from time to time. He was sent to the national government in order to secure contracts for this particular employer for the manufacture of munitions. The time came when the employer had his full allowance of contracts, but he wanted more. He sent the young man down to the government to get them. The young man reported that they could not be secured legally and according to government regulation. So the employer suggested to the young man: "We will form a dummy company and we will ask you to be president of the company, but, of course," he said, "our plant will do the manufacturing and we will get the profits and you will get a liberal share of them." Now this upright young fellow said, "You will have to get somebody else to do that for you. I will not do it."

I say to you today, as educators, what I said to this group of business men: "If you want the schools, elementary, secondary, and university, to get the results that are most desirable in character education, we, whether educators or employers—will have to stand in practise as well as in teaching for the things we want our boys and girls to attain in character qualities."

Superintendent Glenn: Thank you, Mr. Miller. I would remind the group that the meeting this afternoon has illustrated its high character. It began on time. Each man met his responsibility. The Governor's reception is scheduled in the corridor below at four oclock. It is now four oclock. You may pass down to that reception.

Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics

AT THE Atlanta meeting of the Association in 1929 the necessary petition for the formulation of a Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics was presented to the Representative Assembly and to the Executive Committee. This petition was presented by the National Conference of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics. In 1930 at the Columbus, Ohio, meeting the Department was created by formal vote. The former home economics organization has had a history rich in accomplishments. Their good work will continue as a department of the Association.

The officers for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Emma S. Jacobs, Director of Domestic Science, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.; *Vicepresident*, Helen C. Goodspeed, Special Assistant to Director of Home Economics, Public Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Mary Buckley, Director of Home Economics, Public Schools, Paterson, N. J.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION was created by the Board of Directors at its meeting in Minneapolis, July 4, 1928. The Board of Directors took the following action as shown by its minutes: President Adair informed the Board of Directors that requests had been made for a Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction; that the necessity for such a department had been substantiated by much data and that the Department had complied with all the necessary rules for its creation. Mr. Rogers moved that a Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction be created. The motion was seconded and carried. It was then declared that the new department had been duly created.

The officers for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Elizabeth Hall, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minn.; *First Vicepresident*, J. Cayce Morrison, Assistant State Commissioner for Elementary Education, Albany, N. Y.; *Second Vicepresident*, Julia Hahn, Director of Kindergarten-Primary Education, Public Schools, San Francisco, Calif.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, James F. Hosic, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.; *Executive Committee*, the officers of the Conference, ex officio; W. H. Burton, Associate Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; Worth McClure, Superintendent of Schools, Seattle, Wash.; Elma A. Neal, Director of Elementary Education, Public Schools, San Antonio, Texas.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of its meetings may be found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1928: 831-832 1929: 803-826

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE THIRD YEARBOOK—ABSTRACT

J. CAYCE MORRISON, ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, ALBANY, N. Y.

OUR first objective was *to reevaluate the problems of supervision,* to set up if possible a picture of the problems of supervision that every teacher and every supervisor would distinctly recognize as common to their own experience, and by so doing to give to the theorist and the scientist among us the raw materials needed for building a newer and a better theory and science of supervision.

Our second purpose was *to draw the Department of Supervisors and the Directors of Instruction together in a cooperative enterprise.* This goal is essential if this department is to render any great and lasting contribution to the cause of education. Our committee believed it worthwhile to draw the membership of this newly reorganized department together into a common effort looking toward the improvement of their individual and collective service. Could we but lay the foundation for a cooperative effort that would grow through the years until all workers in education would look to this department for vision and understanding as to ways and means of improving the fine art of supervision? So much for our purpose.

Today it is generally assumed that supervision is synonymous with leadership. We have come to expect that wherever leadership is found, there we shall find what Rugg has so happily termed "the frontier thinkers." This committee does not assume of course to have an accurate conception of all the elements that might enter into the picture evolved by frontier thinkers. But there are certain trends in the educational development of today that seem to be marked and generally accepted as signs of progress. I refer especially to scientific measurement, to cooperative curriculum revision, to that general movement known as creative teaching, and to the more commonly accepted theory of the individualization of instruction. The extent to which supervisors are furthering these movements is an index to their powers of leadership. Therefore, our third objective was *to discover the extent to which modern educational movements are affecting educational practises.*

The key to the success of any movement is its influence at the point of contact between teacher and pupil; and it follows that the supervisor's influence toward furthering the movement is the effect that he has upon this pupil-teacher contact.

From the findings of the investigation it is evident that we have a long way to go before we can be finally assured that supervisors are the leaders in furthering the newer movements of education. This objective commends itself not alone as a basis for further study but more particularly as a goal to be attained individually and collectively by the members of this department.

Assuming that supervisors are leading the way toward a better future, are classroom teachers cognizant of the direction in which they are striving?

In other words, assuming leadership on the part of supervisors we were interested *to discover the extent to which supervision has won the confident following of classroom teachers.* Are teachers fearful and suspicious of the motives of supervisors? Are teachers seeking leadership through an understanding of the broader, basic, more significant principles of education; or are they chiefly concerned in the working materials of the teaching profession? Are teachers seeking an understanding of methods in harmony with accepted principles or are they happy only to secure the mastery of devices? This objective was formulated in the confident belief "that a picture of what teachers want today is an acid test as to the value of supervision as it is and it has been." In the beginning of the study we also recorded our belief "that whatever supervision may attain in the future, it must begin with helping teachers as they are."

In some respects this objective led to one of our most important conclusions; namely, that when left to their own resources teachers are apt to become lost in the mass of petty detail, routine, and tradition; but that under the stimulus of farseeing leadership, they tend to cast these minor matters into the discard and to grapple with the larger issues of education.

Moreover, this objective led to a second conclusion which every common sense observer has formulated for himself but which is reinforced by the evidence at hand, namely, that supervisors are continually confronted with compromising between the things they would like to do and the more routine-like problems which press for attention. The essence of supervision we believe to be the ability to generate in teachers the power to solve their routine problems, thereby leaving the supervisor free for the larger responsibilities of leadership.

In the literature of supervision are to be found many attempts to classify the different types of supervisory service. We wanted to find, if we could, *what types of supervisory services are most helpful to classroom teachers.*

Our evidence on this point is not conclusive nor did we expect it to be. When teachers are asked to report on the most helpful service they received during the year, they are limited to the services they have received; and if they have not been accustomed to the highest type of service, it is natural that such service should not occur to them in rendering their report. This objective led to significant observations. When we went to some seven cities which over a period of years had been noted for their effective supervision and asked teachers in their more progressive schools to report the various types of supervisory services which they had found most helpful, we found that they put at the top of their list: constructive teachers' meetings, the interpretation of aims and objectives, and the encouragement of experimentation. When we turned to the data received from the rank and file of supervisors, we found that these three services ranked at the lower end of the scale so far as frequency of mention was concerned. The data disclosed that with the average supervisor the emphasis was still on classroom observation followed by discussion; and that not more than one percent of teachers looked to this method for any real help.

While we had no thought of undertaking a study of the coordination of the work of the various supervisory positions, we thought it might be worthwhile to find what problems were being attacked through each type of position.

We undertook this study in the belief "that all progress has its beginning in a clear understanding of conditions as they are." We understood that America still employs thousands of teachers who possess little or no academic preparation, who have obtained no insight into the field of professional study except through the occasional institute or reading circle book. What assistance do these teachers want? What are supervisors doing to help them? How may they be guided to a broader vision of the problems of their daily labor and to a desire for a richer understanding of the teaching process?

At the other extreme we find teachers possessing initiative, originality, charm, exercising the genius of an artist and the powers of a scientist in their daily work with children. What are supervisors doing to keep these teachers growing, to capitalize the genius that is theirs? In beginning the study we stated an objective that in the light of the evidence seems to have been stated vaguely, to have indicated rather a reaching into the dark than a clear vision as to what should be sought. For better or for worse it was worded *to point the way to a better supervisory service.*

Examination of the evidence submitted disclosed a very considerable gap between the theory of supervision as it is being evolved in the university classroom and laboratory and the practise of supervision as measured by the daily work of the average supervisor. Moreover, there was another gap, though a lesser one, between the work of the average supervisor and the thinking of the average classroom teacher.

On the other hand the evidence disclosed that here and there individuals are bridging these gaps, that we already have within our membership supervisors who possess the vision and the skill not only to bridge but to materially lessen the gap beween the theory evolved in the university and the practise of the classroom teacher. Moreover, this report contains evidence that should enable the university teachers of supervision to more adequately revise their theory in the light of the problems which supervisors meet. Such revision will tend to decrease the gaps.

Your committee from the beginning set for itself the task of determining the problems of supervision concerning which we need more information, to determine something of the problems which defy the understanding of a single investigator based upon his personal experience, to clarify the issues that promise fruitful returns to cooperative investigation, in brief, *to lay the foundation for more effective research in supervision.*

Whether the objectives set up were the most pertinent that could have been set for attainment is for you to decide. Whether the principles formulated for evaluating the data secured, accord with the cumulative experience of men, we leave for your consideration. Whatever the Third Yearbook may have of strength or weakness, it has grown out of the experience of our membership. It contains raw material for the use of those who would contribute to the improvement of supervision. It opens the door to the larger cooperative endeavor of this department in the future.

SUPERVISORY PROBLEMS FROM THE TEACHER'S VIEWPOINT—ABSTRACT

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The following analysis is drawn from facts secured (1) from studies made prior to the publication of the Third Yearbook of this department of the problems reported by two hundred thirty teachers, and (2) from personal experience extending over a period of years. The results of the analysis show certain trends which are presented under four classifications as follows:

Aims and methods—In the elementary school the importance of method has long been recognized. However, it has not yet become firmly established in current educational procedures everywhere.

The foregoing statement may be applied with increased emphasis to the problem of aims and objectives. Rapidly this fundamental principle in modern educational procedure is receiving serious consideration. At present, however, the movement is sporadic. Because of the limitation of time it has not been productive of sufficient evidence to make it possible to satisfactorily estimate its worth. Both of these statements are supported by the reports submitted by teachers.

Approximately half of the requests for supervisory help belongs to the field of method. An analysis of these data as they have any direct bearing upon goals or objectives shows that few teachers are conscious of the importance of this problem. Less than half of one percent make any reference to the aims or objectives toward which they are working. In the light of these data we find a verdant field for carefully organized programs of supervision that will assist teachers to make an intensive study of the problem. Through such programs definite provision must be made for growth on the part of the child in terms of habits, attitudes, ideals, and appreciation, as well as in the knowledge values. It is a generally recognized fact that where teachers are at all conscious of this problem, it is largely in relation to the knowledge values only.

While the nature and use of desirable methods rank high, the data again reveal that fundamental principles of teaching are little recognized. This should not be interpreted as being a serious criticism of teachers but rather a challenge to principals and all concerned with supervision. It indicates that our programs of supervision must take account of this fundamental weakness and endeavor to overcome it. Teachers respond to the educational standard that is set for them. If our teacher-training centers and our supervisory programs face this issue squarely we shall make headway in this direction as we have in so many other directions that have been severely challenged in the past.

Instructional materials—One naturally infers that teachers make many requests for help in securing materials of instruction, such as books, supplies, and equipment, courses of study, outlines, and handbooks. Through our experience in supervision we are encountering these problems continuously. The data contributed by teachers, however, do not fall to any marked degree within this classification. Only six percent of the replies pertain to problems of this type. The needs mentioned are minor in character. Teachers concerned with the problem apparently are not making use of many sources of information in their teaching program. This may mean that they have so long been accustomed to work with inadequate materials both in amount and quality that they accept the situation without complaint as being impossible of improvement. Here again neither the teacher nor the supervisory procedure necessarily is solely responsible for existing conditions.

As long as school finance continues to be such an acute problem the instruments employed in teaching will be ineffective and many times highly undesirable. It is safe to say that were we to make an inventory of all books and supplies now a part of even the best among our leading school systems, we would discover a large percent of this material to be obsolete or poorly fitted to meet modern needs. We all recognize the necessity of adequate library facilities, modern visual aids, ample supplies of other equipment, but few of us are working under even favorable conditions. Until those responsible for the educational program of a school system face this issue and organize a campaign for improvement, we cannot expect the level of teaching to be materially improved.

Classroom organization and pupil control—The time element is a vital factor in successful teaching. Teachers everywhere complain that there is not enough time for their work. Either the courses of study are too detailed for the time allotted, or the children are so slow and backward that more time is needed. In many respects teachers are justified in their complaints. The difficulties that they encounter are inevitable as long as the undesirable features of former policies maintain. We know the serious limitations of our former administrative scheme of grade organization. Combined with it is another ineffective practise. Our elementary school curriculum is still composed of as many as thirteen separate, unrelated subjects. They are served to children in piecemeal fashion, on a time schedule of three, seven, twelve, or nineteen minutes as the case may be. These procedures no longer meet presentday needs. Here also is a complex problem. It demands the modification of many existing practises. Administrators and supervisors who have the courage to work upon this problem need the teacher's judgment gained through experience.

While many teachers are conscious of the problems connected with individual instruction and pupil grouping, apparently they do not generally regard these problems as vital factors in teaching. Mass instruction through teacher direction and control has so firmly established the practise of teaching all children by means of the same general procedure, that it is difficult for teachers to find ways and means of providing for individual needs.

Professional growth inservice—Progressive minded boards of education, superintendents, principals, and teachers are working to provide well-organized supervisory programs as a direct means of bringing about professional growth inservice. The present attitude is not toward less supervision but toward improvement in the former standards of supervision. The open minded alert teacher interested in improving his technics of teaching welcomes supervision if it is cooperative, constructive, and impersonal.

He is willing to contribute toward the success of such a program through active participation as member of a committee charged with the responsibility of studying certain aspects of the problem. He seeks opportunities for improving his work through attending group conferences and general meetings where teaching problems are considered. He extends his experience through summer school courses, professional reading, and extension courses if available. He welcomes the opportunity to have his teaching observed and his work evaluated in terms of accomplishment elsewhere. He studies plans for judging the outcomes of his teaching in terms of changes brought about in each child. He is not satisfied merely to teach the course. He endeavors instead to apply the principles set forth in the curriculum with sufficient modification to make them function in his particular teaching situation. He recognizes that efforts along these lines will be strengthened if he makes use of all the supervisory agencies at his command.

Successful teachers today recognize the need of supervision. The inefficient teacher must be taught through supervision how to make improvement. Supervisors in turn cannot afford to overlook the teacher's point of view. Successful supervisory procedures demand a close coordination of all lines of responsibility in order that the best conditions for learning may be established.

SUPERVISION FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE SUPERVISOR—ABSTRACT

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In most school systems there is a need for the development of constructive supervisory programs based upon cooperative endeavor of all supervisory officers, in which the peculiar contributions of each may be used to supplement and enrich the contributions of others. Moreover, if we are to have effective programs of supervision dealing with such important matters as: the coordination of various school subjects, the development of curriculum materials, the selection and preparation of materials of instruction, no individual in the organization can arbitrarily determine policies without considering the offerings of other supervisory officers and teachers as well.

Supervision is absorbed too much with the individual teacher's problem, and with the routine procedures which always must be met in a school system, rather than with definite programs for the improvement of instruction. In spite of the fact that teachers seem to be more interested in obtaining patterns for teaching and insist upon immediate help of a concrete nature, the supervisory officers should not neglect to interest them in the fundamental and basic principles underlying teaching; and, by means of systematic programs for the improvement of instructions, help teachers—through example as well as precept—modify their procedures in the light of modern educational theory and research.

With the elevation of the principalship to a supervisory office, the general supervisor, the special supervisor, and the principal are concerned jointly with the improvement of teaching, but there is far too little evidence that systematic plans are being developed by which these supervisory officers are engaging in a common study of their problems. Only through the cooperative efforts of all those engaged directly or indirectly with the teaching process can supervisory practise be effective in raising the level of instruction.

PROBABLE NEXT STEPS IN THE PROGRESS OF SUPERVISION—ABSTRACT

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The allowance of more time in supervision for genuine research on the actual problems of a given situation is one of the next steps. This is said and insisted upon with full realization of the press of other duties confronting supervisors. In situations where a research bureau is operating, working relations between the supervisory staff and the bureau can doubtless be worked out, but in any event a larger place must be given in supervision to scientific attack upon these problems if there is to be progress in the field.

The three other suggestions which I wish to present grow naturally out of the first one. It may be asked, what particular problems in supervision may be subjected to scientific attack? There is space to mention only two or three out of the very large number available.

Attention will be called first to a problem dealt with at greater length in Chapters III and IV of the 1930 Department of Superintendence Yearbook, namely, the administrative organization of city systems with special reference to the provision made for supervision. It is obvious that many, if not most, of the towns and cities in this country developed their central organization as they went along. Their administrative structure developed out of the work of successive administrations, out of various public demands from time to time, and out of the effort to meet acute and pressing emergencies as they arose. Divisions, departments and services were added from time to time, and not always with due regard for coherent organization. The very large growth of supervision in recent years has further complicated the problem. The result in many places is friction and inefficiency in varying degrees. What is needed is a clarification of the situation, involving definition of function and allocation of duty. The situation has become pressing in many places and is already engaging the attention of administrators and supervisors.

Turning now to a totally different aspect of supervision, I would suggest that the problem of estimating or evaluating the worth of a given teacher's classroom technic may well be attacked more vigorously. This is a central and crucial problem in administration and has been so recognized since early days. Two general attacks have been made upon it: first, by means of the experimental comparison of various methods, and second, by estimating the general level of the teacher's efficiency through rating cards or semi-objective descriptions. The experimental attack is clearly understood by competent workers, and all we need say is that a larger place for it should be provided. A large number of excellent studies are available in the literature, and these may be studied for suggestions. The rating card movement was the answer of our prescientific days, and while rating cards undoubtedly serve a purpose in the hands of competent people, it is desirable and rapidly becoming possible to have more objectively determined items by means of which to evaluate the teacher's procedure. Among the more recent attacks upon the problem, I would mention those of Leo J. Brueckner, W. S. Gray, and A. S. Barr. Brueckner selected and defined what he designates as four methods of teaching. For each of the methods he prepared a larger number of detailed descriptions of teacher procedure. By accepted statistical methods, these were arranged in an ascending scale of value from poorest to best for each of the four general types. The principle that judgments of skill tend to be distributed in accordance with the normal surface of frequency was adopted as the basis for determining the scale values of the steps. The percent of times one description of a lesson was adjudged to be better than another was then transmuted into fractional units of P. E. differences on the base line of the normal frequency surface. The lesson in each set that was rated by the group as poorest was arbitrarily assigned a value of five P. E., on the assumption that there might be a lesson which would be rated as inferior to this one by 100 percent of the judges. A pamphlet issued by the University of Minnesota contains a statistical table of values for all the types and also a shorter table for ordinary use. The lesson descriptions are confined to a certain type of geography in fifth and sixth grades. However, despite the limitations, the scale and the methods are unique and practically the only new thing in the field of rating in many years. It is conceivable that a scale of this nature could become very effective as a means of evaluating teacher growth brought about through supervision. Trained and competent judges (supervisors) show an astonishing amount of agreement in evaluating teacher efficiency by means of this scale.

A very similar technic has been suggested by W. S. Gray through the description of eight levels of activity in teaching reading. His descriptions have never been made into a scale, nor has any extensive survey yet been made utilizing his technic.

Barr's recent study of "The Characteristics of Good and Poor Teachers in the Social Sciences" is extremely suggestive and lends itself more readily to development in everyday situations than the technic just mentioned. In this case, ten very good and ten very poor teachers were observed for many consecutive hours. An analysis was made of their actual statements, questions and activities while teaching. A number of very interesting and striking differences were found between good and poor teachers, and further development of this technic should enable us to derive quite reliable indices of good, bad and indifferent teaching.

The last suggestion I wish to offer may seem to some to be far-fetched and an indirect and very round-about way to achieve improvement in supervision. I am, however, convinced that it is distinctly not far-fetched, and while indirect, it is nevertheless a vital matter. I suggest that supervisors can bring about an enormous improvement in their own procedures if they can, by pressure upon the teacher-training institutions, progressively better the type of prospective teacher turned out by these institutions. Stated another way, I mean that we can make possible great progress in supervision and in training teachers inservice if we can change materially the nature of the preservice training which teachers receive. The Yearbook of this Department presents what is literally a mountain of evidence showing the exact nature of the demands made by teachers upon supervisors. This survey corroborates a half-dozen similar surveys made in recent years showing that the teachers present to supervisors an enormous volume of little, minute, specific demands. They wish devices, books, materials, suggestions, little ways to meet little problems, which they should be able to answer themselves, or else know how to go about finding the answer.

The fault lies, I think, in our theory of teacher training. On the elementary school level, we have turned out young people with two years' training in the devices and technics of teaching, plus a review in subjectmatter. On the secondary school level we have trusted to preparation in a subject, plus a few courses in education. In both cases, whether we have meant to or not, we have implied that this constituted the training of a teacher. Not only have teachers come to look upon this as complete preparation, but they have also been trained to look upon teaching as something which is carried on through the application of devices and formulas. Problems are things to be met by asking either an older teacher or a supervisor for devices with which to meet the situation. Now the truth of the matter is that the nature of preservice training should be such as to turn out a body of people trained, to be sure, in routine devices and technics, but possessing the attitude that the work of teaching presents problems which are to be met, not by asking someone for a formula, but by careful, persistent, intellectual attack. People of natural intellectual vigor have this attitude in part anyway, but those of average ability must be led to achieve the point of view if possible. It is not implied at all that we do not have many teachers of this highly desirable type already. Here and there some excellent preservice training is being done by various institutions. The reference here is to the average.

TEACHING AS AN APPLIED SCIENCE—ABSTRACT

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In order that this discussion may be as concrete as possible, I shall begin by laying out a number of typical problems in teaching. With these problems before us we may then consider the various methods which the teacher may pursue in the attempt to solve the problems.

I shall consider especially three types of problems. These may be called problems in special methods, problems in general methods, and problems in management and control. By problems in special methods I mean those problems in teaching which are peculiar to particular subjects, including reading, writing, and arithmetic, as well as the more highly specialized subjects, such as music and drawing. Under general methods I include those issues in teaching procedure which are common to a variety of subjects. Under management and control, of course, are included those features of the general management of the individual or the group which affect primarily his general conduct or behavior as contrasted with his progress in the field of learning. Learning and conduct are closely interrelated, but each presents somewhat distinct problems.

Disagreement as to method may be found in the teaching of all of the school subjects. In spite of all the study, scientific and otherwise, which has been given to the other fundamental subjects of reading, arithmetic, and spelling, there are still differences of opinion regarding the best procedure to follow in various details of the teaching of these subjects. To take an example from the field of reading, there is still some question regarding the precise relations between rapid silent reading and more careful reading or study. Rapid silent reading acquired prominence largely as a result of the experimental analysis of reading in the laboratory. There is ground for suspicion that some teachers may have misinterpreted the significance of this emphasis and have neglected other important types of reading.

Besides the determination of the procedure which is best suited to children in general, one of our pressing problems is to determine how to deal with those children who deviate sharply from the mass in some special form of learning, the socalled problem cases. Such problem cases are illustrated by the children who are afflicted by word blindness in reading, by children who appear to be left-handed in writing, and by children who appear to be spelling morons. We are too familiar with the contributions which scientific investigation has made to the treatment of these problem children to make it necessary to refer more specifically to this type of contribution which science makes to teaching.

We may now consider a few examples from the field of general methods. The issues in this field are as pressing as in the other and are probably as susceptible of ultimate solution by the scientific method. Science has already made large contributions to the solution of these problems, though the contribution is in some cases less direct and the answers to some of the problems are perhaps thus far less conclusive than in the cases which have just been discussed.

The past generation has, of course, witnessed enormous development in the field of tests, both tests of general intelligence or of special aptitude and tests of achievement in the various subjects of instruction. The development of these tests and their standardization or validation may very properly be called scientific work. Their use in education, therefore, is an example of the application of science to educational problems; and the use of these standard tests in teaching makes of teaching an applied science. While views may differ, and do differ, concerning the extent to which it is useful to employ these standard tests, and concerning the possible limitations or dangers in their use, it can hardly be questioned that standard tests have become an accepted part of our permanent educational equipment.

The very difference of opinion which has just been referred to constitutes a clear opportunity and demand for scientific study. We already have rather conclusive studies dealing with the relative value of the different types of standard tests. We also have studies of the relative reliability of the usual forms of standard tests, on the one hand, and of the older types of examination, on the other hand. We need still other studies which will analyze more accurately than has yet been done, the types of abilities which are measured by, for example, the true-false test and the essay type of examination. Such studies will undoubtedly be made in due time.

A broader question and one which is perhaps still more important than these relates to the function of tests or examinations of whatever sort they may be. General studies of the psychology of learning have thrown some light upon this problem and more specific studies under the actual conditions of teaching might easily be made. Actual scientific investigation is clearly the only satisfactory means to answer this old dispute concerning the value of examinations or of tests. Tradition gives us no answer, and speculation gives us no answer which is worthy of respect in an age in which we rely upon facts for the guidance of our conduct whenever facts are to be found.

Another issue in the field of general methods is the long-standing issue between the incidental method and the method of direct practise, sometimes called the drill method. We now commonly call the incidental method the project method. There has been much disputing on this problem and a little experimentation. The experimentation has not thus far been extensive enough to enable us to say how far specific types of skill may be left to incidental learning and how far they must be isolated for special attention and drill. It is safe to say, however, that the question must be answered by scientific study rather than by speculative discussion.

Similar issues appear when we examine that aspect of teaching which is ordinarily designated by the term "management" or "control." Much progress has been made in methods of management of individuals or of groups through the gradual adoption of a humane attitude and of humane methods of treating human beings in society at large as well as in the school. Such changes may be considered as the result of that type of general, unsystematic, social experimentation on a large scale, which was illustrated in the case of handwriting. Such social experimentation has brought about the abandonment of the harsher methods of punishment and has led us to think of discipline not as constituting a distinct set of operations, but as simply one aspect of the guidance which the school exercises over the pupil's conduct and learning.

There still remain questions and divergences in point of view, however, on which this social experimentation has not given a conclusive answer. Two courses are open to us in this contingency. The one is to continue the rather clumsy and wasteful method of general social experimentation, the other is to sharpen our issues, draw up hypotheses concerning them, and then seek by careful experimental investigation to determine those methods of procedure which produce the most wholesome development in the life of the child.

The foregoing examples have served to illustrate some of the ways in which science may be applied to teaching, and have pointed out the contrast between the methods of science and other possible methods of determining our procedure. We may now examine more closely the relations between these different methods. It is probably fair to say that there are, broadly speaking, three methods of attacking educational problems, the philosophical, the traditional, and the scientific. The first two may be briefly considered because they may be so employed as to set limits to the application of the scientific method.

The term "philosophy" in relation to education is used in such a variety of senses that it seems desirable to distinguish between them and evaluate them separately. In the first place, it is apparently often used as synonomous with common sense. When we have not adequate data upon which to generalize, we then call upon the general experience of the race and of the individual and arrive at a rule of conduct.

In its more common usage, philosophy represents speculation. This is clearly the chief sense in which the term is used by Professor Dewey as set forth clearly in his recent book, "The Quest for Certainty."

Finally, philosophy is sometimes interpreted as feeling. To quote a paper by Professor Courtis:[1]

> The validity of a philosophy is not a matter to be determined by reason, but by feeling. Each one of us feels that the philosophy he holds is right. Now the dictates of feeling are absolute and primary. The sources of convictions are hidden deep in the inner nature of man and are beyond control. No matter how reasonable a philosophy may be, one may feel intuitively that it is wrong, and reject it utterly.

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[1] Courtis, S. A., "Significant Criteria for the Appraisal of the Validity of Contemporary Educational Philosophy." *Educational Method,* November, 1929, p. 66-72.

A comment on this view is that science may study feelings as well as anything else. The science of esthetics, for example, is a systematic study of the feelings which people have in the presence of works of art.

Tradition represents one of the chief factors in what we call common sense. It is accumulated experience. It is not to be despised as is the fashion with some ultra-radicals, but on the other hand it should not serve as a stumbling block to the establishment of more scientific and rational formulations of the basis of action. I shall have more to say on this in the discussion of the relation between science and art.

The third method and the only one that can furnish the basis for the most economical and rapid progress is science. Examples of the applications of science to education have already been given. Exceptions to the value of science in education, however, rest not so much on the denial of the usefulness of specific applications such as these as upon certain general misconceptions of the nature of science. For example, science is sometimes described as though it consisted merely in the collection of raw data or meaningless facts. It is contrasted with interpretation or evaluation. It is thought that science is confined to the study of highly abstract and impractical problems. All of these conceptions of science are false. The conception of a scientist as merely heaping together in a mass a great number of facts is probably based upon Sir Francis Bacon's description of induction, but the method of science as described by Bacon has never been the method employed by the actual scientist. Bacon was not a scientist himself and scientists have never followed the formula which he laid down. There is no such thing as a mere raw fact. A fact always has some meaning or other. Furthermore, the scientist does not go about collecting facts in a random fashion. He sets up hypotheses, selects facts, makes interpretations, sets up more hypotheses, collects more facts, and so on. Interpretation is just as intimate a part of the scientific method as is the collection of facts.

Again the problems with which the scientist deals are not necessarily abstract or remote from practical applications. In some cases the practical application is not envisaged by the scientist and in other cases it is, but in the long run science is the most practical kind of activity that mankind has learned how to perform.

Part of our difficulty in properly evaluating the relation between science and education is that we do not think of it as an applied science, but think only of the abstract sciences which may make a contribution to it. The abstract sciences, because of their highly analytical character, may not always yield immediate and direct practical applications of the general conclusions which they reach. Such are the sciences of physics, chemistry, physiology, and psychology. The applied sciences, on the other hand, deal directly with practical problems. Such sciences are medicine, engineering, and education. These sciences are synthetic as well as analytic. They do not merely break a situation up into its elements and arrive at abstract generalization, but they take data from many fields and bring them together so as to focus them upon practical problems. They deal with complex situations and use whatever method may be serviceable to indicate the proper method of dealing with these situations. They use the results from any abstract science which may be available and which may contribute toward the solution of their problems. If one thinks of a science as presenting a distinct type of data and involving a distinct type of technic, these applied sciences are not sciences of the same sense as are physics, chemistry, physiology, or psychology; but if we distinguish applied sciences as those sciences which deal with distinct sets of practical problems, then education is an applied science. Teaching is an applied science, then, just so far as scientific research can provide information for its guidance. There can be no question that it has already provided a large amount of such information and that it is continually providing more. Just as fast as science can supply this information, it must supplant other sources of guidance for teachers.

Just a word in closing on the relation between the applied science of education and the art of education. I can think of art as meaning any one of several things, assuming that we have in mind a practical art rather than a fine art. This is not to imply that there may not be an esthetic element in teaching, but merely that we judge it to be primarily a useful as distinguished from an esthetic activity.

If we mean by an art something which is practised and in which we acquire skill as a result of practise, then it is clear that teaching is an art in this sense. One requires practise to be a first-class teacher. Knowledge of the scientific basis of instruction is not alone sufficient. The same is true of medicine and engineering. One would not willingly entrust the diagnosis of a very difficult case to a student just out of medical school. Neither would one entrust the construction of a large bridge to a student just graduated from an engineering college. This, however, does not mean that practise can be substituted for science. It means only that a certain amount of practise is necesssary in order that one may be able skillfully to apply the science which he knows, and the amount of practise necessary for an intelligent teacher with good scientific training is rather small.

Art is sometimes interpreted in the sense of native aptitude for a certain calling. Thus we say an artist is born and not made. Like many proverbs this saying exaggerates the case, especially for the practical arts as distinguished from the fine arts. Some aptitude for teaching is doubtless necessary and the first-rate teacher is one, in large measure, because of his native equipment, but good teachers are to a large extent made, and a large proportion of the making consists in giving them an equipment of applied science.

Again we may perhaps designate as art that skill which enables the teacher to make successfully those moment by moment adjustments which are required in every complex calling. No formula or set of formulas can ever tell us just what to do in each contingency as it arises. We must assume that the individual is able to exercise tact and judgment in dealing with emergencies. His equipment will be partly a matter of native wit and partly of experience. This does not distinguish an art from a science, but it characterizes all human endeavor.

Obviously, art and science are not necessarily opposed to each other. They are only opposed when tradition is set over against the application of science in either of two ways. First, we may cling to some particular traditional practise because it is traditional in spite of the weight of scientific evidence in favor of the contrary practise. No one would consciously and deliberately do this, but the preference for traditional procedure often clouds one's judgment and prevents one from weighing justly the evidence in the case. In the second place, a general preference for traditional behavior may lead one to discourage scientific study and to rely unduly upon the practise which has been received from the fathers. One may not actually resist scientific evidence when it is thrust upon him, but one may offer passive resistance until one is forceably shaken out of one's inertia. To think of teaching as an art *as opposed* to teaching as an applied science, will necessarily produce this attitude of mind. To think of art as supplementary to rather than as a substitute for applied science is simply to recognize that practise, aptitude, and judgment are necessary in teaching as they are in medicine or engineering. The fundamental direction of behavior in all these fields lies in science.

TEACHING AS A FINE ART—ABSTRACT

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I suggest that the scientific attitude may well be regarded as a most desirable part of the equipment of the artist-teacher. It is in no sense inconsistent with other essential items in this equipment. Among the latter I would list: (1) a thoroughgoing mastery of the materials that one teaches; (2) a keen appreciation of the significance of these materials to human life; (3) an ardent desire to have others know and appreciate these materials; (4) a sympathetic understanding of the difficulties which the learner will encounter in mastering the materials; and (5) a command of the technics by which these difficulties may best be overcome.

Regarding the last-named desideratum, it is reasonable to believe that many if not most of these technics will be gained in part from the observation of master-teachers and in part from the discipline of experience. The technology of education will, I think, help the teacher somewhat here although it will not alone solve the problem. An acquaintance with the general patterns or methods of teaching should be helpful, but this help is supplementary rather than central. I am inclined to think that the technology of education will be of largest service in what may be called the extra-teaching activities, as caring for the health of the learners and measuring their progress, and such duties as may devolve upon the teacher in determining what subjectmatter to teach.

Far more significant to the artist-teacher than the technics, however, are the qualities of appreciation and sympathy and devotion which come primarily neither from his instruction in the materials and technologies of his art nor from his specific training during the apprenticeship stage of his career, but rather from the forces, no less real but far more subtle, that we refer to as insights and intuitions and inspirations. Like all true artists, the artist-teacher is a sensitive soul,—sensitive to the finer and more humanly significant elements in the subjectmatter that he teaches, sensitive as well to the finer and nobler elements in those who come to him for instruction and inspiration and guidance. All of the fundamental analogies here hark back to the fine arts and to the attitudes and responses of the creative artists in these fields. In a beautiful tribute to one of his teachers, George E. Woodberry, a recent writer[1] in *The Nation* sums up the essential factors:

> Mr. Woodberry's magic was *sui generis.* He was a great teacher . . . because he was an authentic poet . . . [But] had Mr. Woodberry never written a line of verse, he would be proved poet by his teaching. The proof lay not only in his tenderness and his rare understanding of the raw boys before him, but in the way in which he poured out himself and the best that was in him without stint or limit. Within his scope Mr. Woodberry had much to give, and only a poet could have given with such lavishness.

It is the germinal roots of these qualities that we who train teachers must try to discover and to develop in our students. Our technologies and our experiments, I am sure, will help us here; but we must not be led astray by a premature solution; and, what is even more important, we must not infer that, because our scientific methods may not as yet suggest a solution, we are justified in neglecting the problem or in assuming that the problem does not exist.

It has come to me with increasing force in the past few months that we ourselves have not been fully cognizant of the magnitude and intricacy of the task that we have assumed. We envy the physical sciences and the technologies based upon them; we envy almost as much the biological sciences and their technologies. What we have not sufficiently recognized is that their data are vastly simpler than ours, and that advancement with them is far easier than with us. It was with no small measure of consolation and encouragement that I read the following pronouncement by Henry Fairfield Osborn, one of the most distinguished of American scientists in the biological field:

> Marvelous as are (the) recent discoveries in astronomy, they are becoming comprehensible because of the uniformity of the laws and principles revealed to man through centuries of research. In brief, physics, astronomy, and chemistry are alike coming within the field of exact science capable of measurement, calculation, prediction, and prophecy.

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[1] Kellock, H.: "Woodberry—A Great Teacher," *The Nation,* January 29, 1930.

> What a contrast is presented in the biological sciences, ancient and modern! With a wide circle of astronomic friends and with the most intense admiration for the achievements of astronomy and pure mathematics, I yet believe that their problems are not nearly so difficult or so baffling as our problem. In anatomy, in physiology, in pathology, in heredity we have not yet reached even the threshold of exactitude. With increasing energy, refinement, and ingenuity, we know all the organs revealed in comparative and human anatomy, in both their grosser and their finer structure. We know also the history of the rise of many of these organs in the course of past time and what their functions and relations are, but there is always the Great Beyond of the unknown, and perhaps unknowable, which is summed up in the word life.
>
> Of all incomprehensible things in the universe Man stands in the front rank, and of all incomprehensible things in Man the supreme difficulty centers in human intelligence, human memory, human aspirations, human powers of discovery, research, and conquest of obstacles. . . .[1]

It is literally true that we have today more definite and dependable knowledge about stars that are thousands of light years distant, and about atoms that no human eye can ever see, than we have about the human mind that has made these discoveries and given us this knowledge.

What Dr. Osborn says, in effect, is that the task of the physical scientist is a simpler task than that of the biologist, and that the task of the biologist, difficult as it is, is a simpler task than that of the psychologist. The same comparisons hold, I maintain, with reference to the technologies based upon these three groups of sciences. Insofar as dependable guidance from fundamental laws and principles is available, the task of the engineer is a simpler task than that of the physician, and the task of the physician, difficult as it is, is a simpler task than that of the teacher.

Fortunately, under the conception of teaching as a fine art, we can still carry on, encouraging in every possible way the objective study of our problems, grateful for every positive gain that our technology can record, and yet firm in the faith that a mastery of our materials combined with sympathy and insight and a sincere devotion both to our ideals and to the best interests of those who come to us for instruction and guidance may carry us forward, even though we are dealing with the most intricate of human problems and even though the human mind, which it is our particular task to feed and form, is still the "most incomprehensible thing in the universe."

ELEMENTS COMMON TO ALL GOOD SUPERVISION—ABSTRACT

MAYBELL G. BUSH, SUPERVISOR OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, MADISON, WIS.

Supervisions is now generally accepted to comprise those agencies and activities which affect instruction directly. This definition does not exclude the administrative elements involved in supervision, but it does help us to distinguish between supervision and administration. What, then, are some of the essential elements common to all good supervision?

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[1] Henry Fairfield Osborn's Foreword to *The Brain from Ape to Man*, by Frederick Tilney; Paul B. Hoebner, Inc., New York, 1928.

1. *Democracy*—Supervision should be based upon a cooperatively determined program, and must be guided directly by plans which those to be supervised have had an active part in formulating. Both the ultimate and immediate objectives in the program should be thoroughly understood by all concerned.

2. *Coherence*—Supervision must assume responsibility for the coordination, integration, and capitalization of all of the resources within the various parts of a school system for such stimulating activities leading to teacher growth as special case studies, experimental teaching, curriculum construction, certain types of research, or group leadership.

3. *Resourcefulness*—Supervision must secure to teachers, at the time they require it, adequate assistance in meeting situations beyond the levels of accomplishment for which their training, experience, or native ability have equipped them.

The beginning teachers should receive special help from supervisors. Doubtless upon the skill of their first supervisors depends, to a large degree, the future success of many teachers. Emergency cases arise in which teachers may do the wrong thing, or misunderstandings may occur which cause sorrow, and thus diminish the teacher's desirable results. Prompt, decisive action on the part of the supervisor in direct charge is imperative. Such action is an element in skilful leadership when assistance is given in the spirit of true, sympathetic helpfulness, and when it is administered in such a way that it does not lower the teachers' professional status either with the pupils or with their coworkers.

4. *Validity*—Supervision should be the functioning of a thorough knowledge of the most scientific theory available, including the application of this theory in the organization and the technic of supervisory activities. In addition, supervision should be conditioned by that attitude of open-mindedness and tolerance which grows out of breadth and clarity of vision acquired through training and experience outside of the vocational demands of the work.

5. *Reliability*—Supervision requires the cooperative services of general supervisors, special supervisors, and often of subjectmatter experts, since thorough knowledge of both the subjectmatter to be taught and the special technics for presenting it are essential for carrying on many of the technical supervisory activities.

6. *Unity*—Supervision is the agency through which educational philosophy, as conceived by the superintendent and his staff, functions in classroom activities, in subjectmatter offered, and in outcomes realized.

It is the privilege of the supervisor to lead the teacher to an understanding of educational philosophy through the teacher's own teaching problems. The skilful supervisor analyzes a specific teaching situation with the teacher, and gradually helps the teacher to see and appreciate the great continuing truths that lie back of many of the simplest teaching acts. When this contact has been made in the mind of the teacher, the most common-place duties take on new meanings and values. Soon the teacher has a philosophy of education. He has really entered the teaching profession, and sees the difference between principle and device, between unity of purpose and uniformity of practise, and what appeared before as contradiction now is seen to be only variety.

7. *Significance*—Supervision must justify its own existence both in terms of objective data and of subjective appraisal.

It is admitted today that many of the desirable outcomes of teaching can be measured by the objective means now existing. The same is true of several of the direct results of supervision. In spite of the fact that a few individuals may have in some cases been misjudged, because of the present inadequacy of the tools of objective measurement, their greatly increased use, and the rapid gain in the wisdom displayed in their interpretation, more than justifies insistence upon objective measurement as an element in determining the real significance of supervision. Here lies a fruitful field for further study and creative work in which not only research groups but supervisors themselves should participate.

8. *Guidance*—Supervision must contribute to the civic, social, and spiritual growth of the teaching staff.

Hitherto, because so little was known regarding the effects of emotional conditions and social attitudes upon the work of a teacher, the services of the supervisor were considered unnecessary in the respects just mentioned. Today we know that a teacher's success or failure may be due quite as much to emotional state and to attitude toward others as to the intellectual preparation for the task. Physical buoyancy, selfrespect, contentment, and social understanding are absolute essentials of happiness. Surely supervision could perform no greater service for the teacher as an individual than to increase his happiness.

Just as the Alpine horn-blower's notes come back to him again and again, may there constantly come to those of us who supervise others, the warning against autocracy. May we at all times hear and heed the clear call to that cooperative service which demands the best one has to give, but which yields in return immeasurable results in happiness, and in achievement for both teachers and children.

THE ORGANIZATION OF SUPERVISION IN LARGE CITY SYSTEMS—ABSTRACT

ARTHUR DONDINEAU, SUPERVISING DIRECTOR OF INSTRUCTION,
PUBLIC SCHOOLS, DETROIT, MICH.

There are four ways by which supervision may be led to function efficiently. The first is a coordinated, workable scheme of organization. In any system where teaching service is continuous and relatively permanent, a consciously directed effort must be put forth to stimulate teachers, principals, supervisors, and administrators to a richer professional growth and mental alertness. Detroit has a definitely organized program which aims to do just this thing. Our system is based on the 6–3–3 plan. In addition, the college units embrace an arts college, teachers college, school of medicine, and colleges of law, engineering, and pharmacy.

To keep all units operating harmoniously there is close coordination between the administrative staff, the supervisory division, and the college units. The deputy superintendent who is the nominal head of all instruction is directly responsible for a group of district principals, each of whom in turn is in charge of from fifteen to twenty elementary school buildings and their respective principals. A supervising director heads the intermediate schools and their individual principals, while an assistant superintendent has been assigned to coordinate the work in both intermediate and high schools.

The general supervisory program and the work of the special supervisors are unified by the supervising director of instruction. This plan of organization provides for a flexible integration of the groups upon whom the superintendent depends for the carrying out of broad policies outlined for the education of our community.

While primarily administrators, these officials, from the superintendent to the individual school principal, in keeping with modern practise, have also definite permanent supervisory functions. The department head in the intermediate or high school is a supervisor as well as a teacher. He devotes a minimum of twenty-five percent of his time to the organization and supervision of instructional activities in his department. He is responsible to his principal for the success of these phases of work and for the instructional results. It follows that his qualifications should be those which have been already outlined as essential to supervisory leadership.

To further integrate the work and stimulate professional alertness, all instructional material prepared by supervisors for teachers and principals is routed through the administrative heads of the various units, who, in turn, interpret it to the principals of the schools within their jurisdiction. Each principal of a building is responsible for carrying through the program with his own staff of teachers. Thus every principal and administrative officer is concerned with supervision and feels himself a recognized factor in the program for the improvement of instruction—an organization that makes for unity, intelligence, and sympathy of purpose. With the growth of large cities we have come to recognize that the cooperation and organization of all available supervisory agencies are essential if we hope to influence the educational products of 7500 to 10,000 teachers working with some 300,000 children, who are distributed in about three hundred buildings, and who represent all types of social, racial, economic, and mental levels.

This brings us to our second means of improving our instructional program. I refer to the in-service courses offered by the professional college. Every supervisor in Detroit is considered a member of the college staff, and, as such, he gives at least one in-service course for those teachers and principals in the field who wish to continue their professional study. The broad influence and practical leadership which may be radiated through such a channel have proved very effective.

A third approach to instructional development is made through demonstration lessons and discussions held under the leadership of the special supervisor for the principals of each of the units under which we operate. Every year sees such a series of lessons carried on under normal conditions, as far as possible, with regular classroom teachers, for the benefit of school principals and teachers. These lessons form the bases for discussions to establish a common philosophy of education, to review the principles of psychology, to agree upon the objectives of education, and so to bring about an intelligently united effort to improve the technic of teaching in every school in the city.

Finally, the supervisors prepare bulletins reporting studies and research which cover specific phases of their subjects. These bulletins are routed through the regular channels, that is, they are first presented to the general administrative groups who then discuss them with their principals and teachers. The more detailed and technical aspects may be presented later to the teachers by the supervisors themselves, thus providing for direct contact between the classroom teacher and the subject specialist.

In a modern program of supervision principals, supervisors, and teachers make practical use of the research tests and surveys which are given periodically. Both formal and informal tests furnish objective measures of teaching procedures. By their means we may discover intelligent diagnoses of educational ills and prescribe remedial measures—a process which is the common concern of teacher, principal, and supervisor. Such tests, if they are sufficiently comprehensive and if they are used to measure pupil growth, are in themselves, to a large degree, excellent substitutes for direct supervision.

The general survey tests are the newest and one of the very effective agents in our scheme of supervision. The right kind of survey test offers an appraisal of the whole program in a particular field. It aids the administrator to analyze the effectiveness of instruction, diagnoses existing conditions, and points the way to future goals. Survey tests should be given far enough apart to enable supervisors, administrators, and teachers to make adjustments in teaching procedures before the test is repeated. They should be given close enough together to permit a child to make contact with two or three tests in any one subject before he completes his work in the public schools.

THE SUPERVISION OF ARITHMETIC—ABSTRACT

ALMA B. CALDWELL, GENERAL SUPERVISOR OF GRADES 1-6, CLEVELAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS, CLEVELAND, OHIO

From earliest days to the end of life human beings evidence in their living a need for skill in powers developed only through arithmetical training. The physical being is subject from the beginning to measurements as to size, weight, and growth. As the child progresses from infancy toward school days he needs number concepts and skill in the use of number facts in his relationships, his games, projects, and activities.

The kindergarten goes far in developing the number ideas of its clientele in vocabulary building, counting, grouping, estimating distance and values, but no formal work is attempted.

In the first grade this work continues into more formal number work and deals with increasing difficulties. Counting, measuring, estimating, and construction as needed in the activities of the class develop a basic principle for arithmetical development.

As pupils progress, the need of skills in counting demands that pupils acquire the fact combinations of numbers. To meet this growing need, the number facts should be grouped according to difficulty. Then teach them, and arrange for necessary drills. Pupils should be grouped and regrouped, basing the organization on common difficulties. Later, individual pupils should study cards for their own difficulties.

The combinations should be well mastered by the end of 2A work, and pupils should be allowed to progress at their own speed.

Through activity work, logical and meaningful connections or arithmetical skills with life situations are attempted. Children find it fascinating to solve both personal and social problems, and they take joy in acquiring any arithmetical skill when the need of it is apparent.

Often extra effort is necessary to provide a workable background, as the life of the child has not yet provided the necessary experiences. Child-experience is the basis for an activity program.

The more varied and numerous the experiences provided, the better the transfer to new situations. As soon as the real problem in a situation is met, it is wise to pass on to another one embodying different experiences and requiring new skills.

The problem-solving type of learning motivates desires for original expression in the form of problems. The data drawn from activities and experiences or even sought out with a definite goal in mind form an excellent background for original expression in problematic form. Children enjoy making problems to give information, or to enlist aid in the successful solution of a situation, or to give a clearer realization of their goals. They like to express individually their personal deductions and estimations for the benefit of others.

COORDINATION OF THE WORK OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERVISOR—ABSTRACT

C. H. LAKE, FIRST ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
CLEVELAND, OHIO

The principal of a school is an executive-supervisory officer. It is his responsibility to devise plans for putting into operation the educational policies of the school system and for making them effective. His value depends largely on what he is able to get others to do. He is responsible for the personnel of his school and for all the activities in it.

The supervisor is an expert in a particular field or department of instruction. He is an advisory, and not a directing officer, except where specific tasks have been delegated to him. The line of authority is from the superintendent of schools through his assistants to the principal and to the teacher.

Supervisors will develop plans in their fields of specialization for making the instructional policies of the school system effective. However, the responsibility for instruction in the school must be placed definitely with the principal and along with it the responsibility for utilizing the services of the special supervisor.

The administrative officer of the school system determines broad educational policies. To the supervisors will be delegated the responsibility for devising and proposing plans for executing these policies within the scope of their special subject.

Supervisors are supposed to earn their salaries. They cannot earn them unless they have something worthwhile to do. The principal will not be serving the interests of the school if he exhibits any tendency to depreciate the responsibility of supervisors for plans and programs of action within their particular fields.

THE SUPERVISION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

D. H. EIKENBERRY, PROFESSOR OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, OHIO STATE
UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

In days gone by the high-school principal was largely a preserver of cultures of past ages. How different the situation is today is clear to anyone who contrasts a progressive high school of 1930 with the typical classical secondary school of fifty years ago. Today the high-school principal stands in the position of a social engineer. He is the administrative and supervisory head of the institution that has been called the most purely American institution thus far developed.

A rather small proportion of presentday teachers is made up largely of those more recently trained plus the more progressive of the older teachers who have accepted a modern point of view with respect to secondary education. A second group is composed of those who are still dominated by the old traditional point of view. In between these two extreme groups are the remainder of our teachers. Many of this last group have never thought seriously about our present high schools and their purposes. They are drifting along in the teaching profession just as many workers drift along in other occupations.

In almost every school these three groups of teachers will be found. One of the first tasks of supervision is that of leading all teachers to the acceptance of a modern philosophy of education. The principal, then, as a supervisor has the responsibility of holding our schools true to our educational ideals. This he will do through leading his teaching staff, his pupil population, and his community to see what our secondary schools should accomplish for the individual and for society in this fourth decade of the twentieth century.

It is important that the principal work in these eight important areas or fields of supervision:

1. The selection and assignment of teachers
2. The education of the teaching staff to a modern conception of education
3. The selection of subjectmatter
4. The selection of textbooks and instructional material
5. The securing of desirable educational products
6. The improvement of study
7. The extracurriculum activities program
8. The guidance program.

The following are four different means or methods for supervising the eight fields mentioned above:

1. Teachers' meetings
2. Individual conferences
3. Selfsurvey of the high school
4. Curriculum reconstruction.

SUPERVISING THE SOCIAL SUBJECTS—ABSTRACT

JESSIE F. FAIR, DIRECTOR OF UPPER ELEMENTARY GRADES, DAYTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS, DAYTON, OHIO

In a recent book by Mark Starr, entitled *Lies and Hate in Education*, the author makes this statement: "There is little doubt that international hatred is fostered both in Europe and America by the teaching of history in the public schools." The editor of the *New Republic*, commenting upon this statement, asks: "And what about the United States? Our country as it happens, is not included in the book; but it is not for any lack of damaging evidence."

What about the United States? Are we not as teachers of the social studies obligated to face this question squarely? Are we teaching, even unconsciously teaching the A. B. C. of hate? If not, what is our objective in the teaching of the social studies? Can we make any just claim at all that our objective in the teaching of the social studies is the A. B. C. of love?

From a response to a questionnaire, which I sent out two years ago to eighty-eight cities in the United States, I learned that about one-half of the elementary teachers, one-half of the junior high teachers, but only one-fourth of the senior high teachers acknowledge, even in theory, that the greatest objective in the social studies has anything whatever to do with *improving human relationships.*

These results are born out by Mr. Earl Rugg's analysis of 56,000 examination papers of 1125 teachers through which he arrived at the conclusion that "the aims implied in the analysis clearly reflect even today the emphasis on the learning of facts."

With what high hopes we read the introduction to many courses of study in this matter of objectives but with what a chill of disappointment we pursue the content of the course to find that the real objective is subjectmatter set out to be learned.

We have not begun to realize what power there is in organized thinking in relation to a particular objective. There are eight hundred thousand teachers teaching twenty-four million children. If we were to determine that the A. B. C. of love were to be the great objective in the teaching of the social studies, we could help to bring in a new social order, and the press would publicly announce: "There is no doubt that international love is fostered both in Europe and America by the teaching of the social studies in the schools."

MINUTES OF THE SECRETARY

Atlantic City, February 25 and 26, 1930

In point of numbers and enthusiasm, the tenth winter meeting far surpassed its predecessors. Over five hundred attended the meeting on Tuesday morning and about eight hundred and fifty the meeting on Wednesday. A quick shift of meeting places was necessary in the latter case and the management of Haddon Hall deserves great credit for its readiness to meet the situation. Praise is also due to the Hotel Morton for providing luncheon for more than twice as many as were expected Tuesday noon. The committees were very well provided with meeting rooms by this hotel and the meals were uniformly good.

The program was carried out as announced, except that Mr. Giles, state high-school inspector in Wisconsin, appeared in place of Miss Bush on Wednesday and read the paper she had prepared. The four members of the Third Yearbook Committee summarized their findings on Tuesday. On Wednesday Messrs. Freeman and Bagley presented two somewhat opposing views of the nature of teaching, the former arguing for the concept of applied science, the latter for that of fine art. Both discussions were followed closely by a large audience. Miss Bush, through Mr. Giles, who assisted in their formulation, presented an admirable statement of foundational principles of supervision. At the close she identified her philosophy of supervision with the concept of the Project Method. In closing the session, Mr. Dondineau described in an interpretative way the organization of supervision in Detroit as an example of how this problem may be met in a large city.

At the luncheon on Tuesday, Dr. Woods of Los Angeles discussed the place of supervisory technics in the program of instruction, and Miss Cutright of Minneapolis outlined a program for the redirection of supervisory activities. These topics were commented upon by Dr. Cook of Baltimore, who was this year the chairman of the Yearbook Committee of the Department of Superintendence. Among other things he said that it was his opinion that the Department of Supervisors has no superior as a professional organization.

The Board of Directors—Nine members of the board were present when Chairman Underwood called the meeting to order. The minutes of the previous meeting as printed in *Educational Method* for April, 1929, were approved. The Treasurer's Report was accepted. An auditing committee was authorized and a budget estimate of $13,300 was accepted.

The work of the Membership Committee was voted worthy of praise, and the policy of inviting educators generally but urging supervisory officers other than the superintendents and principals particularly to become members of the Department was set up.

The Executive Committee reported the Fourth Yearbook well under way and proposed that several additional topics for investigation be assigned. Three topics growing out of the work of Dr. Morrison's committee were selected, as follows: How to Capitalize the Creative Energies of Teachers; Differentiating and Unifying Supervisory Services; Applications of Scientific Method in Supervisory Programs.

Regional committees will be appointed so that all parts of the country may adequately be represented in the work of the Department. It is proposed to follow these three additional yearbooks with a series of five to cover the supervision of the major aspects of the curriculum. A definite procedure for the selection of the members of yearbook committees was adopted.

Preliminary steps were taken toward making provision for affiliation of state groups with the national organization and the consequent democratization of the method of control of the organization through representation on the board. Notice is given of an amendment to the constitution to be proposed to provide for branches.

The Nominating Committee reported the names of officers and directors as follows: to succeed themselves on the board for a three-year term, directors Horn, Hosic, Kilpatrick, McLean, and Morrison. These persons were reelected directors at the business meeting of the Department on Wednesday. For president, Elizabeth Hall, first vicepresident, J. Cayce Morrison; second vicepresident, Julia Hahn; secretary-treasurer for three years, James F. Hoosic; member of the Executive Committee for three years to succeed Mabel E. Simpson, Elma A. Neal. The terms of office of these persons will begin at the close of the summer meeting of the N. E. A.

A breakfast for the Membership Committee and another for the Executive Committee rounded out the activities of the tenth annual convention.

Department of Teachers Colleges

THE DEPARTMENT OF TEACHERS COLLEGES takes the place of the Department of Normal Schools, which was formed at the Cleveland meeting, August 19, 1870, by a reorganization of the American Normal School Association, which had been organized in 1858. See *Proceedings*, 1870:176; 1906:524. In 1924 it was voted to appoint a committee to discuss the possibility of combining with the American Association of Teachers Colleges. See *Proceedings*, 1924:614. In 1925 the combination was effected. It was arranged that the National Education Association take over the publications of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, including its yearbook, in 1926.

The officers of this Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, George Willard Frasier, President, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colo.; *First Vicepresident*, E. L. Hendricks, President, Central Missouri State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Mo.; *Second Vicepresident*, Francis B. Haas, President, State Normal College, Bloomsburg, Pa.; *Third Vicepresident*, Bruce R. Payne, President, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Charles W. Hunt, Dean, School of Education, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

1870: 1- 88
1873:164-199
1874:214-254
1875:138-153
1876:157-211
1877:139-174
1879:113-135
1880:176-193
1881:199-218
1882:173-181
1884:236-258
1885:223-248
1886:389-423
1887:467-604
1888:465-515
1889:557-613
1890:717-759
1891:709-741
1892:407-435
1894:819-871
1895:672-718
1896:642-666
1897:709-736
1898:728-757
1899:835-904
1900:480-491
1901:635-646
1902:529-649
1903:539-595
1904:567-593
1905:517-557
1906:707-711
1907:739-759
1908:703-739
1909:547-597
1910:563-595
1911:695-709
1912:809-897
1913:523-553
1914:497-565
1915:763-815
1917:383-417
1918:209-235
1919:221-259
1920: 237-263
1921: 515
1922:1063-1085
1923: 737-744
1924: 613-637
1925: 863
1926: 838-947
1927: 873-950
1928: 833-948
1929: 827-937

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES AT ATLANTIC CITY, N. J., FEBRUARY 21 AND 22, 1930

THE American Association of Teachers Colleges convened at Atlantic City on February 21, 1930, at 9 A. M. in the Haddon Hall Hotel, the Vernon Room. President H. W. Rockwell was the presiding officer. The meeting opened promptly at 9 oclock. The general topic for the morning was "How Can We Regulate the Supply and at the Same Time Improve the Professional Quality of the Candidates Legally Available to Enter the Public School Service as 'Novice' Teachers?" The following papers were read and may be found in other parts of the Yearbook:

A. WHAT ARE THE BASIC FACTS AND CONDITIONS WHICH HAVE SIGNIFICANT BEARING UPON THE SOLUTION OF THIS PROBLEM?
Ambrose L. Suhrie, New York University, New York, N. Y.

B. HOW CAN WE INDUCE A SATISFACTORY PERCENTAGE OF THE BEST *Potential* TEACHERS TO UNDERTAKE PREPARATION FOR THIS SERVICE?
Joseph E. Burk, State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.

C. HOW CAN WE SET UP DEFENSIBLE POLICIES AND WORK OUT EFFECTIVE PROGRAMS FOR THE SELECTIVE ADMISSION OF ENTRANTS TO TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS?
Alonzo F. Myers, State Director of Teacher Preparation, Hartford, Conn.

D. HOW CAN WE EFFECT THE EARLY IDENTIFICATION AND THE CERTAIN ELIMINATION OF STUDENTS DISTINCTLY UNPROMISING AS PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS?
Edwin W. Adams, Director of Normal and Practice Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.

E. HOW CAN WE ESTABLISH AND MAINTAIN QUALITATIVE STANDARDS FOR GRADUATION AND FOR PROVISIONAL CERTIFICATION?
Charles C. Sherrod, President, State Teachers College, Johnson City, Tenn.

President Rockwell appointed the following committees:

Tellers: President Lord, President Munson, President Riggs.
Nominating: President Morgan, President Lamkin, President Linscheid.
Audit: President Pitman, President Aspinall.

President McKenny reported that the Committee on Accrediting and Classification had been in session for two days and outlined the policies and methods of procedure of the Committee.

On Friday afternoon at 2 oclock the Association met again in the Vernon Room, President Rockwell presiding, to consider the topic, "General Consideration of Standards—With Studies on Some Controversial Issues." The following papers were presented and appear in full in the Yearbook:

CHANGING STANDARDS
E. S. Evenden, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

THE COMPUTATION OF TEACHING LOADS IN TEACHERS COLLEGES
H. L. Donovan, President, Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College, Richmond, Ky.

HEALTH SERVICE IN TEACHERS COLLEGES
N. H. Dearborn, Director, Institute of Education, New York University, New York, N. Y.

CREDIT ADMINISTRATION IN TEACHERS COLLEGES
Clarence Linton, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

THE STATUS OF CORRESPONDENCE COURSES
H. F. Mallory, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

UNIT COSTS IN TEACHERS COLLEGES
H. J. Magee, State Director of Teacher Training, Albany, N. Y.

THE PREPARATION OF STAFF MEMBERS FOR TEACHERS COLLEGES
Shelton D. Phelps, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

The Committee on Standards and Surveys presented for consideration changes which would be voted on at the Saturday morning session.

In accordance with the vote the previous year, the ballot for president took place Friday afternoon.

On Friday evening the Association met for its annual dinner at the Hotel Madison. It had for its guests Professor W. W. Charters of Ohio State University, who spoke on "Using the Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study as a Basis for the Reorganization of the Curriculum"; Professor Ernest Horn of the State University of Iowa, who spoke on the subject, "What are the Most Important Recent Contributions in the Field of Elementary Education?"; and Dr. William J. Cooper, U. S. Commissioner of Education, who spoke on "The Content of a Four Year Course for Elementary Teachers." The dinner was attended by nearly 250 people, almost 50 more than attended the dinner at any previous time.

Saturday morning, February 22, the Association convened promptly at 9 oclock, President Rockwell presiding. Dean Withers had been delayed and the Association proceeded to hear the report of the nominating committee, which was presented by President Morgan. The report recommended that the Committee on Standards and Surveys be increased to five and nominated Dean Thomas C. McCracken of Ohio University to serve five years; President Conrad L. Kjerstad, Dickinson, N. Dak., to serve four years; and Dr. E. S. Evenden to serve for three years. The committee nominated President Eugene Fair, Kirksville, Mo., to fill the vacancy caused by the retirement of President Butcher on the Committee on Accrediting and Classification. The committee nominated President J. L. Jarman, Farmville, Va., to serve as delegate to the American Council on Education in place of Noble L. Garrison. The report was adopted unanimously.

A motion was made and adopted unanimously that a committee of three be appointed by the president to study the problem of adopting standards for other institutions for teacher training than those now defined as teachers colleges in the present standards.

It was moved and carried unanimously that suitable resolutions be drawn up by the secretary and sent to the family of President David Felmley.

The following resolution was prepared and sent:

Whereas, President David Felmley has spent a long life of devoted and distinguished service to the cause of teacher training, and,

Whereas, President Felmley was from its earliest days an active member of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, contributing to its discussions, assisting wisely in its development, serving as its president in 1921, and,

Whereas, we had known him as valued friend and trusted comrade in the work of our profession,

Therefore, we do hereby extend to Mrs. Felmley and to the family of President Felmley our heartfelt sympathy, and express to them our sense of deep loss and our feeling of pride in him as a leader in educational work.

The American Association
of Teachers Colleges
CHARLES W. HUNT, *Secretary.*

It was moved and seconded that the Association send cordial greetings to President Seerley and President Kirk.

The report of the Committee on Standards was made and changes were made as appear in the report of the chairman on page 128.

The Association then proceeded to consider the papers which had been planned as follows:

UNSOLVED PROBLEMS IN TEACHERS COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION WHICH CALL FOR COOPERATIVE RESEARCH.
John W. Withers, Dean, School of Education, New York University, New York, N. Y.

THE ORGANIZATION, SCOPE, AND COST OF A DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH.
Frederick L. Whitney, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colo.

THE PROPOSED FEDERAL SUBSIDY FOR TEACHER TRAINING: A PRE-VIEW AND REPORT.
Dwight B. Waldo, President, State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich.

PLACEMENT SERVICE IN TEACHERS COLLEGES.
Whit Brogan, Principal, Scarsdale, N. Y.

Saturday afternoon the Association again convened in the Viking Room at 2 oclock, President Rockwell presiding. The papers presented were as follows:

THE QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION IN TEACHERS COLLEGES
Paul G. Chandler, State Teachers College, Millersville, Pa.

WHAT I AM DOING TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION IN MY INSTITUTION
FIVE MINUTE PRESENTATIONS BY:
A. B. Moehlman, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
J. L. Alger, President, Rhode Island College of Education, Providence, R. I.
Homer E. Cooper, Dean, Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College, Richmond, Ky.
Frank W. Thomas, President, State Teachers College, Fresno, Calif.

THE WESTFIELD EXPERIMENT
Charles Russell, Principal, State Normal School, Westfield, Mass.

OUR SOLUTION OF THE STUDENT HOUSING PROBLEM
H. DeW. DeGroat, Principal, State Normal School, Cortland, N. Y.

The report on the reclassification of institutions was presented by President McKenny as chairman of the Committee. The new institutions included in the accredited list were as follows:

Teachers Colleges—Class A

State Teachers College, Fresno, Calif.
New Jersey State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.
State Normal School, California, Pa.
State Teachers College, Edinboro, Pa.
State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa.
State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa.
State Teachers College, Millersville, Pa.
Concord State Normal School, Athens, W. Va.

Junior Teachers Colleges—Class A

State Normal School, Fredonia, N. Y.
State Normal School, Geneseo, N. Y.
State Normal, School, New Paltz, N. Y.
State Normal School, Oswego, N. Y.

The report was adopted.

The complete list of accredited institutions is found on page 19.

The Committee on Audit reported the accounts of the treasurer to have been duly examined by a firm of certified accountants, in accordance with instructions given by the Association last year.

The following resolution in regard to oversupply of teachers was presented and unanimously adopted:

Believing that the apparent present oversupply of teachers caused by an actual surplus of those duly certified to teach presents both a challenge to and an opportunity for constructive educational action, I move as follows:

(1) Adoption by this body of a minute requesting state superintendents and legislatures to capitalize this condition by effecting progressively advanced requirements for entrance into the teaching profession, and by establishing parity of requirements as between rural and all other teachers.

(2) Appointment by the president of this body of a committee to confer with the association of state superintendents during their session at Atlantic City next week in the interest of such a policy.

The following resolution in regard to the formation of an international teachers college association was presented and adopted:

RESOLVED, that the American Association of Teachers Colleges instruct the executive officers or a committee which they may select to inquire into the feasibility and advisability of establishing contacts with teacher-training institutions in foreign lands with a view to bringing about international cooperation among teacher-training schools of the world.

The Association voted $1600 for clerical service for the secretary of the Association. The Association also voted $1000 compensation to the secretary-treasurer.

President Riggs of the committee to canvass the election reported the following officers elected:

President	George W. Frasier, Greeley, Colo.
First Vicepresident	E. L. Hendricks, Warrensburg, Mo.
Second Vicepresident	Francis B. Haas, Bloomsburg, Pa.
Third Vicepresident	Bruce R. Payne, Nashville, Tenn.

STANDARDS FOR ACCREDITING TEACHERS COLLEGES

ADOPTED AT WASHINGTON, D. C., FEBRUARY 26, 1926. REVISED AT DALLAS, TEXAS, FEBRUARY 26, 1927, AT BOSTON, MASS., FEBRUARY 25, 1928, AT CLEVELAND, OHIO, FEBRUARY 23, 1929, AND AT ATLANTIC CITY, N. J., FEBRUARY 22, 1930

I. Definition of a Teachers College

A. Teachers College (Four Year Institution Granting Degrees). A teachers college, within the meaning of these standards, is a state, municipal or incorporated private institution, or an independent unit of a recognized college or university which has at least one four-year unified curriculum; which is devoted exclusively to the preparation of teachers; which has legal authority to grant a standard bachelor's degree; which has granted and continues to grant such degree; and which requires for admission the completion of a standard four-year secondary school curriculum, or equivalent training approved by this Association.

B. Normal School. A similar institution devoted exclusively to the preparation of teachers, which requires for admission the completion of a standard four-year secondary school curriculum, or equivalent training approved by this Association; which has a curriculum less than four years in length and does not have legal authority to grant a standard bachelor's degree; or which has a curriculum four years in length but has not granted and does not grant a bachelor's degree, shall be designated as a normal school or a junior teachers college.

Normal schools shall conform to the same standards as teachers colleges except as hereinafter specifically indicated.

C. No teachers college shall maintain a secondary school, or a department in which strictly secondary-school academic work is offered as a part of its college organization, except for training school purposes.

II. Requirements for Admission

A. The quantitative requirements of admission to a teachers college or normal school accredited by this Association shall be at least 15 units of secondary school work, or the equivalent. These units must represent work done in a secondary school approved by the state department of public instruction of the state in which the college is located, and must conform to the definitions of the various units as recommended by the state department of public instruction, or must be evidenced by the result of examinations.

Experienced teachers over 21 years of age may be admitted to a teachers college or normal school for such work as they are qualified to take, but before receiving a diploma or a degree, they shall meet the full entrance requirement.

If the state department of public instruction maintains no accredited list of secondary schools or publishes no definitions of secondary school units, those of a regularly recognized accrediting agency shall be used.

B. Equivalence for entrance or secondary school work shall be determined only by regularly scheduled written examinations, which shall be of such character as to satisfy the Committee on Admissions of the college that the applicant is fully prepared to do college work as hereinafter defined.

C. Experience in teaching shall in no case be accepted for entrance, or credit toward graduation, except supervised teaching in the training school.

III. Standards for Graduation

A. The quantitative requirement for graduation shall be the completion of at least 120 semester hours of credit, or the equivalent in term hours, quarter hours, points, majors or courses.

B. The requirement for graduation for a normal school with a two-year curriculum shall be at least 60 semester hours or the equivalent; and for a normal school with a three-year curriculum, at least 90 semester hours or the equivalent.

C. Not more than one-fourth (¼) of any curriculum leading to a degree or a certificate or a diploma in a teachers college or normal school shall be taken in extension classes or by correspondence. (Not more than one-half (½) of this shall be done by correspondence.) These classes shall be conducted by regularly appointed teachers who meet all the qualifications of Standard V, Preparation of the Faculty. If extension teachers are regularly employed on a part-time basis and hold educational administrative or supervisory positions, they shall not be permitted to offer courses enrolling individuals who are under their administrative or supervisory jurisdiction. No courses shall be offered for credit either in extension or by correspondence which are not also offered as part of the regular residence work. These courses should likewise meet the standards of sequence, prerequisites, etc. set forth in Standard VIII, Organization of the Curriculum.

Note: (It is understood that this shall not be retroactively applied to any student who has (or is now registered for) credits in excess of the one-fourth presented in this standard.)

D. No degree or certificate or diploma shall be issued by a teachers college or normal school to a student who has not spent a minimum of one year in regular residence work in the institution issuing the degree, certificate or diploma. One year of residence work shall be understood to mean one year of full time study, or two half years or its equivalent in summer sessions.

IV. Size of Faculty

A. There shall be a reasonable ratio of students to faculty in the college department, which shall be subjected to investigation to determine the proper ratio.

B. In the training school there shall be at least one full time training school teacher for every 18 college students each of whom does during the year a total of 90 clock hours of student teaching. If more than 90 hours of student teaching is required of each student the number of student teachers for each training school teacher shall be decreased so as not to increase the total annual supervisory load for each training school teacher.

C. No teacher in the training school, who is also responsible for a regular amount of supervision of student teaching, shall be required to have charge of more than 40 children at any one time.

D. In the case of use of affiliated urban or rural schools for student teaching purposes, when the degree of affiliation and control is restricted to such an extent that a teaching force of more limited training than is contemplated by these standards must be used, and which is not capable of effective supervision of student teaching, or which by the terms of the affiliation is not expected to do supervision of student teaching, there shall be one full-time supervisor of student teaching for every 50 student teachers, each of whom does during a year 90 hours of student teaching. Such supervisors must possess the scholastic qualifications required of members of the faculty of the college department. If more than 90 hours of student teaching is required of each student the number of student teachers per supervisor should be decreased so as not to increase the total annual supervisory load for each supervisor.

V. Preparation of Faculty

A. The minimum scholastic requirement for teachers in the training school shall be graduation from a college of recognized standing, presumably evidenced by possession of a bachelor's degree or equivalent training. Six years after the date on which these standards take effect, the minimum scholastic requirement for all new training-school teachers shall be the same as for teachers in the college department.

Teachers who have been members of the faculty of the training school for not less than five years, and whose training is not equivalent to this requirement, may be considered to have equivalent training for six years after the date on which these standards take effect, provided that the president of the college submits a statement of their training and experience and files with the Committee on Accrediting and Classification a declaration that such members of the faculty are rendering service in their own teaching and in the supervision of student teaching which is of a superior quality as judged by the standards of the best public school systems in the state in which the teachers college is located.

During this period of six years this declaration must be made annually and shall be based upon actual inspection of the teacher's work.

B. The minimum scholastic requirement for members of the faculty who give instruction in the college department shall be graduation from a college of recognized standing and additional training which shall include at least one year of study in their respective fields of teaching in a recognized graduate school, or equivalent, and presumably possession of the master's degree. Members of the faculty who have served in their respective positions for not less than five years, and who do not meet this requirement, may be regarded as having done so for six years after the date on which these standards take effect, provided that the president of the college submits a statement of their training and experience and files a declaration that such members of the faculty are giving satisfactory instruction of college grade.

During this period of six years this declaration must be made annually until each such member of the faculty has secured the required training and shall be based upon actual inspection of the work of such members of the faculty.

C. A teachers college or normal school may be considered to have met the requirements of this standard if not over ten per cent (10%) of the regularly appointed members of the faculty (college and training school) shall fail to meet the standards set forth in V-A & B, provided that for all teachers in this group who do not hold a master's degree the president shall file annually with the Secretary of the Association a statement of the special or technical training which in his judgment is a desirable substitute for the degree requirements. In computing the percentage of the faculty with less than the standard training the following exceptions shall be allowed:

1. In those cases in which regular public schools not under the control or supervision of the college are used for practice teaching purposes the room teachers shall not be considered as part of the

faculty unless they are appointed through the college and in all respects are considered as regular members of the faculty; or unless they supervise the practice work of 6 or more student teachers within an academic year.

2. In teachers colleges offering four year curricula for the preparation of special teachers or supervisors in two or more of the fields of commerce, fine arts, industrial arts, music, household arts, or physical education, study by an individual in his special field may be taken as a substitute for the degree requirement in Standard V-A and B provided that the total exceptions made in these departments shall not be more than ten per cent (10%) of the entire faculty and shall not increase the total per cent of those with less than standard training for the college to more than fifteen per cent (15%).

D. It is recommended that as far as possible in new appointments to the staffs of teachers colleges or normal schools the minimum standard of training set forth in Section A & B should be met.

E. It is recommended that new teachers appointed to the staffs of teachers colleges or normal schools should have at least 30 semester hours of undergraduate and/or graduate work in the field in which they are to teach including professional courses in the subject matter of this field.

F. It is desirable that members of the faculty of a teachers college or normal school should possess training of a distinctly professional quality, which represents at least three years of study beyond the bachelor's degree, in a recognized graduate school, or corresponding professional or technological training. The effort of a teachers college to maintain a faculty of higher scholarly equipment than is required by the minimum standard, shall be held to constitute a strong presumption that superior work is being done. The proportion of members of the faculty which should be on the different levels of training above the first degree shall be subjected to immediate investigation.

VI. Teaching Load of Faculty

The following teaching loads shall be the maximum for a teachers college or normal school faculty: 16 recitation periods of at least 50 minutes each per week or its equivalent. Equivalence shall be based upon the ratio of one class period to one and one-half class periods in shop, laboratory work and physical education.

VII. Training School and Student Teaching

A. Each teachers college or normal school shall maintain a training school under its own control as a part of its organization, as a laboratory school, for purposes of observation, demonstration, and supervised teaching on the part of students. The use of an urban or rural school system, under sufficient control and supervision of the college to permit carrying out the educational policy of the college to a sufficient degree for the conduct of effective student teaching, will satisfy this requirement.

B. Student teaching shall be so organized as to lead to a proper initial mastery of the technique of teaching and, at the same time, protect the interest of the children in the training school.

C. The minimum amount of student teaching required of every graduate of a teachers college or normal school shall be 90 hours of supervised teaching.

D. For every 18 college students to be given 90 hours of student teaching, there shall be a minimum group of 30 children, either in the campus training school or in affiliated urban or rural schools under the supervision of the teachers college or normal school.

E. It is recommended that at least two-fifths of the teaching in the training school should be done by regular teachers of the training school or by other members of the faculty.

VIII. Organization of the Curriculum

A. The curriculum of the teachers college must recognize definite requirements as regards sequences of courses. Senior college courses must not be open to freshmen who have not taken the prerequisites for these courses. Programs consisting mainly of freshman and sophomore courses carrying full credit shall not be available for students in the junior and senior years. Coherent and progressive lines of study, leading to specific achievement within definite fields, must be a characteristic of the college curriculum.

Every teachers college must, therefore, adopt an organization of its curricula which will provide in its junior and senior years courses which require prerequisite courses in the freshman and sophomore years or courses which are open only to juniors or seniors. The number of such courses taken by a student in the junior and senior years must total at least one-third of the requirements for the completion of a four-year college curriculum. It is recommended that teachers colleges adopt a system of numbering courses or of catalog description which will indicate the year in which the course should be taken.

B. In a normal school with a three-year curriculum, two-thirds of the work of students in the last year shall consist of advanced courses to which freshmen are not admitted.

IX. Student Health Service and Living Conditions

A. 1. Health Protection: Provision shall be made, by means of suitable organization, for the following phases of student health service: (a) physical examinations, (b) consultations on health matters and dispensary treatments, (c) correction of remediable defects, and (d) hospitalization or infirmary care. (This type of service, (d), may be provided through cooperative arrangements with independent hospitals.)

The student health protection services shall be rendered by specially qualified physicians, nurses, dental hygienists, psychiatrists, and others on such basis and in such manner as local conditions require. Offices and rooms of the health protection (or service) department or organization shall be equipped with modern scientific apparatus and provision shall be made for essential clerical services.

2. Health Education: Student health service logically includes health education (teaching health habits), hence, suitable courses in health education shall be offered and provisions made in the training school department for observation and practice teaching in health education.
3. Physical Recreation: Facilities shall be provided for indoor and outdoor recreation involving desirable physical activities.

B. Each teachers college or normal school shall make definite provisions to insure for its students living conditions which provide proper safeguards for health, morals, and mental efficiency and shall promote a responsible type of citizenship and leadership on the part of individuals.

C. When dormitories are maintained these shall be of safe construction, shall be kept in wholesome, sanitary condition, and shall be under responsible supervision.

X. Library, Laboratory and Shop Equipment

A. Library

1. Books and Periodicals: Each teachers college shall have at least 15,000 volumes, exclusive of public documents and bound periodicals. For normal schools offering only two and three year curricula the minimum shall be 10,000 volumes. It is recommended that by 1940 these minima shall be increased to 25,000 and 17,000 respectively. In computing the number of volumes in a library not over 15% shall be allowed for duplicates. The books should be distributed among the various classifications in approximately the following order:

		Percent
000-099.9	General, Library Economy Bound Periodicals	7.5
100-199.9	Philosophy and Psychology	5.0
200-299.9	Religion and Bible Stories	2.5
300-399.9	Sociology and Education	20.0
400-499.9	Language and Philology	2.5
500-599.9	Sciences	7.5
600-699-9	Useful Arts	7.5
700-799.9	Fine Arts	5.0
800-899.9	Literature	20.0
900-999.9	History and Geography	20.0

(These proportions should be revised from time to time in order that they may be adjusted to changing emphases in the work of teachers colleges.)

Each teachers college library shall provide not less than 150 periodicals appropriate to the academic, cultural and professional needs of the institution.

Parts 2, 3, 4 and 5 of Section A of Standard X are to be considered only as recommendations.

2. Training School Library: Each teachers college or normal school should also provide at least one (if elementary and secondary training schools are separately housed, separate libraries are desirable) training school library which will be administered by the teachers college library and which will serve the needs of the training school students and serve also as a model and practice unit for the teachers college students. The books in the training school library may be counted in the minimum total but not to exceed 20% of the total.
3. Staff: Each teachers college or normal school with an enrollment* of less than 1000 "full time" students should employ at least two full-time librarians in addition to the librarian or librarians in charge of the training school libraries. An additional full-time librarian should be employed for each additional 500 full-time students or major fraction thereof above 1000. These librarians should have academic qualifications equal to those prescribed for regular faculty members in Standard V-B. This training should include at least one year's work in an approved library school. These librarians should be accorded the same privileges as any other members of the instructional staff. Assistants should be employed as needed to care for necessary clerical and routine work in the library. Additional assistance should be provided as needed in colleges offering a definitely organized curriculum for the training of special teacher-librarians.
4. Budget: Each teachers college or normal school with an enrollment of less than 1000 "full-time" students should apportion annually to the library not less than 7% of the entire college budget for current expenses exclusive of capital outlay and such supplementary business operations as dormitories, cafeterias and book stores. For enrollments more than 1000 and less than 1500 the per cent should not be less than 6 and for enrollments over 1500 the per cent should not be less than 5. This amount should be apportioned to salaries, books and other items in approximately the following proportions:

	Percent
1. Salaries and Wages	55
2. Library supplies	2

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* (In computing enrollment for library standards the "average annual enrollment on a 36 week basis" as used by the U. S. Bureau of Education in its report on Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools should be used.)

3. Travel	1
4. Printing and Publications	2
5. Binding and Repairs	5
6. Books	25
7. Periodicals	5
8. New Equipment	3
9. All other	2

5. Physical Equipment: The library should be housed so as to provide reasonable safety from fire for the stacks; adequate provision for reading, reference work, and use of periodicals; accessions, cataloging and work rooms; librarians' offices; reserve book and loan desk service; library methods classroom; and the equipment necessary for efficient service in all departments of the library.

B. Each teachers college or normal school shall be provided with laboratory equipment sufficient for instructional purposes for each course offered.

C. Each teachers college or normal school must be provided with suitable shops and shop equipment for instructional purposes for each course offered, including gymnasiums for physical education; commercial equipment for courses in commerce; suitable kitchens, dining-rooms and laboratories for household arts; and adequate farm buildings and demonstration farms for work in agriculture.

XI. Location, Construction and Sanitary Condition of Buildings

The location and construction of buildings, the lighting, heating, and ventilation of the rooms, the nature of the lavatories, corridors, closets, water supply, school furniture, apparatus, and method of cleaning, shall be such as to insure hygienic conditions for students and teachers.

XII. Limits of Registration of Students

A. No teachers college shall be placed on the accredited list, or continued on such list for more than one year, unless it has a regular registration of at least 200 students of college grade.

B. A notably small proportion of students of college grade registered in the third and fourth years, continued over a period of several years, shall constitute ground for dropping a teachers college from the accredited list. 15 per cent of the enrollment of a teachers college should be in the junior and senior years.

C. A normal school with a two-year curriculum must have an enrollment of at least 150 students of college grade, one-third of whom must be in the second year.

XIII. Financial Support

A. Each state or municipal teachers college or normal school must have an annual appropriation sufficient to provide a faculty of the size, quality, and attainments hereinbefore prescribed; the required library, laboratory and shop equipment with proper repairs and replacements; sufficient supplies and material in all departments for educational and instructional purposes; repairs and replacements in the physical plant adequate to maintain the plant in good working condition; and suitable staffs, supplies and material for the effective operation of the physical plant. A marked inferiority or insufficiency in material resources shall be accepted as a strong presumption of unsatisfactory educational conditions.

B. If the teachers college or normal school is a private incorporated institution, it must have a minimum annual income of $50,000 for its teachers college program, one-half of which shall be from sources other than payments by students; and an additional annual income of $10,000 for each 100 students above 200, one-half of which shall be from sources other than payments by students. If such teachers college or normal school is not tax-supported, it shall possess a productive endowment of $500,000, and an additional endowment of $50,000 for each additional 100 students above 200.

XIV. Classification of Colleges

A. Teachers Colleges.

(1)

Any teachers college which completely meets these requirements shall be designated as a Class A College, provided that until September 1929 it may fail to meet three of these standards; until September 1930 it may fail to meet two of them and until September 1931 it may fail to meet one of them, and nevertheless be given the rating of a Class A College provided however that it shall always meet the definition set up for a teachers college in I of these standards.

(2)

Any teachers college which fails to meet not more than two of these standards shall be designated as a Class B College, provided that until September 1929 it may fail to meet five of these standards, until September 1930 it may fail to meet four of them and until September 1931 it may fail to meet three of them and nevertheless be given the rating of a Class B College.

(3)

Any teachers college which fails to meet more than two of these standards shall be designated as a Class C College, provided that until September 1929 it shall not be classed as a Class C College unless it fails to meet more than five of these standards, until 1930 more than four and until 1931 more than three.

B. Normal Schools.
The same standards shall apply to normal schools as listed in Section A, thereby providing for Class A normal schools, Class B normal schools and Class C normal schools.

XV. Accrediting and Classification of Teachers Colleges

A. For the purpose of administering these standards, a committee of five members, know as the Committee on Accrediting and Classification, is hereby created, one member of which shall be elected annually by the Association for a term of five years. (In 1926 five members shall be elected for terms of one, two, three, four and five years, respectively.)

B. The character of the curriculum, the efficiency of the instruction, the scholarly spirit and the professional atmosphere of the institution, the standard for granting degrees, and the general tone of the teachers college, shall be factors in determining eligibility for accrediting.

C. The Secretary of the Association, or the executive secretary, whenever authorized and appointed by the Association, shall be the secretary and the executive officer of the Committee on Accrediting and Classification.

D. Each teachers college accredited under these standards shall file annually with the Committee on Accrediting and Classification a report on a blank provided for that purpose by the Committee.

E. These standards shall go into effect on September 1, 1927. Not later than the date of the annual meeting of the Association in 1928, the Committtee on Accrediting and Classification shall prepare an accredited and classified list of teachers colleges on the basis of information contained in the reports submitted to the committee by the colleges.

F. The Committee on Accrediting and Classification may inspect or cause to be inspected any teachers college when it deems such inspection necessary.

G. The Committee on Standards and Surveys shall have power to appoint any commission for investigation of any problems concerning standards which it deems necessary and desirable.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES—LIST OF ACCREDITED INSTITUTIONS—1930-31

Teachers Colleges—Class A

Location	*Institution*	*President*
ARIZONA		
Flagstaff	Arizona State Teachers College	Grady Gammage
Tempe	Arizona State Teachers College	A. J. Matthews
ARKANSAS		
Conway	Arkansas State Teachers College	B. W. Torreyson
CALIFORNIA		
Fresno	State Teachers College	Frank W. Thomas
San Diego	State Teachers College	Edward L. Hardy
Santa Barbara	State Teachers College	C. L. Phelps

COLORADO		
Greeley	Colorado State Teachers College	G. W. Frasier
Gunnison	Western State College of Colorado	Richard Aspinall
GEORGIA		
Athens	Georgia State Teachers College	Jere M. Pound
Milledgeville	Georgia State College for Women	J. L. Beeson
ILLINOIS		
Carbondale	Southern Illinois State Normal University	H. W. Shryock
Charleston	Eastern Illinois State Teachers College	L. C. Lord
DeKalb	Northern Illinois State Teachers College	Karl L. Adams
Macomb	Western Illinois State Teachers College	W. P. Morgan
Normal	Illinois State Normal University.	
INDIANA		
Muncie	Ball State Teachers College	L. A. Pittenger
Terre Haute	Indiana State Teachers College	L. N. Hines
IOWA		
Cedar Falls	Iowa State Teachers College	O. R. Latham
KANSAS		
Emporia	Kansas State Teachers College	Thomas W. Butcher
Hays	Kansas State Teachers College	W. A. Lewis
Pittsburg	Kansas State Teachers College	W. A. Brandenburg
KENTUCKY		
Bowling Green	Western Kentucky Teachers College	H. H. Cherry
Murray	Murray State Teachers College	Rainey T. Wells
Richmond	Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College	H. L. Donovan
LOUISIANA		
Natchitoches	Louisiana State Normal College	W. W. Tison
MICHIGAN		
Detroit	Detroit Teachers College	Warren E. Bow, Dean
Kalamazoo	Western State Teachers College	D. B. Waldo
Marquette	Northern State Teachers College	J. M. Munson
Mt. Pleasant	Central State Teachers College	E. C. Warriner
Ypsilanti	Michigan State Normal College	Charles McKenny
MINNESOTA		
Bemidji	State Teachers College	M. W. Deputy
Duluth	State Teachers College	E. W. Bohannon
Mankato	State Teachers College	C. H. Cooper
Moorhead	State Teachers College	R. B. MacLean
St. Cloud	State Teachers College	Geo. A. Selke
Winona	State Teachers College	G. E. Maxwell
MISSISSIPPI		
Cleveland	Mississippi Delta State Teachers College	W. M. Kethley
Hattiesburg	State Teachers College	Claude Bennett
MISSOURI		
Cape Girardeau	Southeast Missouri State Teachers College	Joseph A. Serena
Kirksville	Northeast Missouri State Teachers College	Eugene Fair
Maryville	Northwest Missouri State Teachers College	Uel W. Lamkin
St. Louis	Harris Teachers College	J. L. Purdon, Principal
Springfield	Southwest Missouri State Teachers College	Roy Ellis
Warrensburg	Central Missouri State Teachers College	E. L. Hendricks
NEBRASKA		
Chadron	Nebraska State Normal College	Robert I. Elliott
Kearney	Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College	George E. Martin
Peru	State Normal School and Teachers College	W. R. Pate
Wayne	State Normal School and Teachers College	U. S. Conn
NEW HAMPSHIRE		
Keene	State Normal School	Wallace E. Mason
Plymouth	State Normal School	Ernest L. Silver
NEW JERSEY		
Trenton	New Jersey State Normal School	Don C. Bliss
NEW YORK		
Albany	New York State Teachers College	A. R. Brubacher
Buffalo	State Teachers College	Harry W. Rockwell
NORTH CAROLINA		
Greenville	East Carolina State Teachers College	Robert H. Wright
NORTH DAKOTA		
Mayville	State Teachers College	C. C. Swain
Minot	State Teachers College	Geo. McFarland
Valley City	State Teachers College	C. E. Allen
OHIO		
Athens	College of Education, Ohio University	Thomas C. McCracken, Dean
Bowling Green	State Normal College	H. B. Williams
Cleveland	School of Education, Western Reserve University	Charles W. Hunt, Dean
Kent	Kent State College	J. O. Engleman
Oxford	School of Education, Miami University	A. J. Ashbaugh, Dean

OKLAHOMA		
Ada	East Central State Teachers College	A. Linscheid
Alva	Northwestern State Teachers College	W. W. Parker
Durant	Southeastern State Teachers College	Eugene S. Briggs
Edmond	Central State Teachers College	John G. Mitchell
Tahlequah	Northeastern State Teachers College	M. P. Hammond
Weatherford	Southwestern State Teachers College	E. E. Brown
PENNSYLVANIA		
Bloomsburg	State Teachers College	Francis B. Haas
California	State Normal School	Robert M. Steele
East Stroudsburg	State Teachers College	T. T. Allen
Edinboro	State Teachers College	C. C. Crawford
Indiana	State Teachers College	C. R. Foster
Kutztown	State Teachers College	A. C. Rothermel
Lock Haven	State Teachers College	Dallas W. Armstrong
Mansfield	State Teachers College	W. R. Straughn
Millersville	State Teachers College	Landis Tanger
Shippensburg	State Teachers College	Ezra Lehman
Slippery Rock	State Teachers College	J. L. Eisenberg
West Chester	State Teachers College	Norman W. Cameron
SOUTH DAKOTA		
Aberdeen	Northern Normal and Industrial School	David Allen Anderson
Madison	Eastern State Normal School	E. C. Higbie
Spearfish	State Normal School	E. C. Woodburn
Springfield	Southern State Normal School	C. G. Lawrence
TENNESSEE		
Johnson City	East Tennessee State Teachers College	C. C. Sherrod
Memphis	West Tennessee State Teachers College	J. W. Brister
Nashville	George Peabody College for Teachers	Bruce Payne
TEXAS		
Alpine	Sul Ross State Teachers College	H. W. Morelock
Canyon	West Texas State Teachers College	J. A. Hill
Commerce	East Texas State Teachers College	S. H. Whitley
Denton	North Texas State Teachers College	R. L. Marquis
Huntsville	Sam Houston State Teachers College	H. F. Estill
Nacogdoches	Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College	A. W. Birdwell
San Marcos	Southwest Texas State Teachers College	C. E. Evans
UTAH		
Salt Lake City	School of Education, University of Utah	Milton Bennion, Dean
VIRGINIA		
East Radford	State Teachers College	J. P. McConnell
Farmville	State Teachers College	J. L. Jarman
Fredericksburg	State Teachers College	M. L. Combs
Harrisonburg	State Teachers College	Samuel P. Duke
WEST VIRGINIA		
Athens	Concord State Normal School	J. F. Marsh
Fairmont	Fairmont State Normal School	Joseph Rosier
Huntington	Marshall College	M. P. Shawkey
WISCONSIN		
Eau Claire	State Teachers College	H. A. Schofield
La Crosse	State Teachers College	G. M. Snodgrass
Menomonie	The Stout Institute	B. E. Nelson
Milwaukee	State Teachers College	Frank E. Baker
Oshkosh	State Teachers College	H. A. Brown
Platteville	State Teachers College	A. M. Royce
River Falls	State Teachers College	J. H. Ames
Stevens Point	Central State Teachers College	R. D. Baldwin
Superior	Superior State Teachers College	A. D. S. Gillett
Whitewater	State Teachers College	F. S. Hyer

Junior Colleges—Class A

ALABAMA		
Florence	State Normal School	H. J. Willingham
Jacksonville	State Normal School	C. W. Daugette
Livingston	State Normal School	G. W. Brock
Troy	State Normal School	E. M. Shackelford
GEORGIA		
Collegeboro	South Georgia Teachers College	G. H. Wells
MISSOURI		
Kansas City	Teachers College of Kansas City	G. W. Diemer
NEW YORK		
Fredonia	State Normal School	Hermann Cooper, Principal
Geneseo	State Normal School	W. A. Holcomb, Principal
New Paltz	State Normal School	L. H. van den Berg, Principal
Oswego	State Normal School	J. G. Riggs, Principal

NORTH CAROLINA
Cullowhee ....Western Carolina Teachers College......................H. T. Hunter
NORTH DAKOTA
Dickinson ....State Normal School.............................Conrad L. Kjerstad
WEST VIRGINIA
Shepherdstown ...Shepherd College State Normal School..................W. H. S. White

Junior Colleges—Class B

MAINE
Gorham ....State Normal School.......................Walter E. Russell, Principal
NORTH DAKOTA
Ellendale ....State Normal and Industrial School.......................R. M. Black

HOW CAN WE REGULATE THE SUPPLY AND AT THE SAME TIME IMPROVE THE QUALITY OF CANDIDATES LEGALLY AVAILABLE TO ENTER THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SERVICE AS "NOVICE TEACHERS"?

Five addresses were built about this general theme. They begin on this page and continue through page 848.

A. WHAT ARE THE BASIC FACTS AND CONDITIONS WHICH HAVE SIGNIFICANT BEARING UPON THE SOLUTION OF THIS PROBLEM?

AMBROSE L. SUHRIE, PROFESSOR OF TEACHERS-COLLEGE AND NORMAL-SCHOOL EDUCATION, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

The major topic assigned for this morning's discussion has purposely been set up in question form, as have also the sub-topics, not only to provide a definite challenge to those who are to speak by assignment on this program but more particularly to stimulate general participation in the open discussion which is to follow the presentation of these short papers.

The purpose of this symposium is not to make a final report of significance on this important topic but rather to prompt the members of this national conference to undertake together, or in some other way, to promote effectively a serious study of this very difficult problem until we have arrived at a satisfactory working solution.

Nothing which the first speaker, with the limited resources at his command, can present will be more than a bit of preliminary diagnosis of certain maladjustments in current policies and practises which have to do with the preservice professional education of teachers and with their preliminary or provisional certification. And as a consequence his associates may have to content themselves with the treatment of symptoms rather than of true pathological conditions.

As a pedagogue, I like to make the attempt at the beginning of each class period to motivate individual and group response before taking up in detail the problem or topic of the hour. Perhaps I can do so in this case by relating an incident and by making an application. It is said that on one occasion Colonel Francis Parker gathered together a group of his adolescent boys and girls and told them that the school of which he was principal wasn't his at all, but that it was theirs—their very own—and that in the long run it would be just as good as *they* should make it. They were fired by this challenge as by every other challenge he had ever given them. In a few days they came back with a motto which they had devised and which they insisted should be inscribed on the walls of the corridor of *their* building. And it was so ordered by the principal. This motto read as follows: "Not what we take from this school but what we bring to it makes it a good school and helps us." I should like to paraphrase their motto in this setting by saying: "Not what you may gain from these speakers this morning, but what you bring to the open forum which is to follow will make this a good conference and will help you and others after we have all gone to our homes." I hope you will get ready now to correct and to supplement the diagnosis which the first speaker will make and to confirm or to amend the plans for treatment which may be proposed by the subsequent speakers.

Let me now direct your attention specifically to the text of the major question which is to be discussed. *"How can we regulate the supply and at the same time improve the professional quality of candidates legally available to enter the public school service as 'novice' teachers?"*

Well, first of all, we must know something about the demand and the supply, not only in the gross for the United States as a whole, but for each well-defined regional unit of the country, for each state and for each city of significant size. We must by some proper method of scientific inquiry or survey of the facts find out what is the actual need for teachers of the various kinds (to provide for replacements and for the growth of school population); then we must ascertain with equal care and precision just what the available supply of each kind actually is and the institutional and other sources from which each constituent major element in the total supply is or may be obtainable. Such information is not now available, generally speaking.

We do not actually know, except in vague and general terms, whether we have a surplus or a shortage of teachers, because we have no well-defined and generally accepted standard of what constitutes satisfactory minimum education and training antecedent to appointment in this, that, or the other kind of position as a "novice" or "beginning" teacher. The layman says we have a great surplus of teachers. The professional educator says that except in restricted areas and for certain types of service in the country as a whole we have a considerable shortage. Both are correct, because each has a different concept from the other of what constitutes a teacher of acceptable education and training.

The layman is accustomed to include in the available supply all who have been certified under the laws of the state as qualified for appointment to positions in the public schools. (And let me whisper it in parenthesis that many of the laws under which such certification takes place have been on the statute books for 25 years or more and are "in this year of disgrace," 1930, administered by laymen elected by popular vote on partisan ballots.)

The professional educator's concept of available teachers is much less inclusive. To him a person is not available for appointment as a "novice" teacher until he has met the general requirements for graduation from a properly accredited teacher-training institution and the special requirements for certification set up and administered by an educational office professionally staffed. It sometimes happens that in a given state school system (it isn't the state of Osceola) the records show that there are available for the teaching service two or even three times as many *legally qualified* teachers as there are teaching positions in the public schools of the same jurisdiction. On the face of it this looks like an uncomfortably large surplus. When a professional educator surveys the qualifications of the availables and finds that less than a third of them have credentials equivalent to the minimum requirements which are generally regarded among professional school superintendents and supervisors as acceptable, the uncomfortable surplus suddenly shrinks into a still more uncomfortable shortage.

If I were to depart for a moment in this case from the task of diagnosis to prescribe the treatment, I should say that the "swelling" could be quickly reduced by a "hot application" of standards.

Take an illustration of another sense in which the term surplus is used. The president of a teachers college or the director of his appointment bureau is likely to associate the idea of surplus with a list of unplaced graduates. Due to a maladjustment of the curriculums offered in his institution, to the replacement needs of the geographical area which it principally serves, or due to the lack of an adequate program of guidance, there may have been a considerable number of candidates prepared for a certain type of high-school service in which very few vacancies actually occur. If you were to ask him while the pressure for jobs is coming daily and hourly to his office what he knows about demand for and supply of teachers in his area or in his state, he would be likely to say there is a huge surplus. At the same time the employing authorities in the same service area may be much disturbed by a serious shortage of well-trained teachers of the kind actually needed, namely, grade teachers in elementary schools.

I might say in this connection that there is increasing evidence in some sections that the precipitate conversion of two-year normal schools into four-year teachers colleges has greatly increased the number of graduates whose college training is ill-adjusted to the needs of the public school service in which they seek employment and in which they would find suitable vacancies if they had been trained to fill them.

It is freely predicted that there is sure to be a reckoning in the legislatures of many of our states in the near future, unless we soon begin to train a higher ratio of the graduates of our state supported teacher-training institutions for service in the elementary grades than we have recently been doing.

I would not place chief responsibility for this maladjustment upon the administration of the state teachers college. I have used this illustration to emphasize the wisdom of provisions for a continuous study, by state central agencies, of the specific replacement needs in the teaching force of the state and of the supply available from both public and private institutions within and without the state to meet these needs. If such surveys, as are now being made in a few of our states and cities, were generally made in all of the states and larger cities, the presidents of teacher-training institutions would find little difficulty in adjusting their programs to the needs which should actually be found to exist. Under present conditions in most states and cities teacher-training institutions can do little better than to prepare a product for an unknown market.

Let me describe a situation that is more satisfactory in every essential respect. Here is a state in which the number of teaching positions in elementary schools not filled by persons who have had at least two years of post high-school training of an acceptable sort is negligible. Inasmuch as forty percent of the graduates of its normal schools in last June's classes were unplaced in September, these schools added another year to the curriculum and enforced more rigid requirements in the selection of entrants. The enrolment has been limited and a maximum quota has been assigned to each school and in each curriculum. The continuous survey of replacement needs which has been made in this state over a period of years indicates plainly that these advances can now safely be made and without imperiling the state's available supply of "novice" teachers for elementary grades. The directing authorities in this state are wasting nobody's time in preparing for positions that do not exist, and they are concentrating the resources of the teacher-preparing institutions upon the better training of that picked group which is actually going to be appointed when it has finished the required preservice training.

Next let me turn to the "tale of two cities." The first is one of our group of largest cities. In it no thoroughgoing or continuous study is made of replacement needs in the elementary schools. A few years ago hurry-up calls went out from the superintendent's office to the head of the municipal teachers college requesting him to graduate forthwith 100 advanced students without reference to the complete fulfilment of the requirements of the curriculum because forsooth there were found to be a hundred vacancies in the elementary schools of the city. As a result of the introduction of a better salary schedule and from other causes as well, the city now has a surplus of 15 "novice" teachers for every 100 regularly employed teachers in the elementary grades. It is reported that in order to prevent the further unseemly scramble for appointment the certificating authorities in this city are adopting standards so rigid as to prevent even the most meritorious from having more than one chance in five to get on the approved list, and remember this is after they have spent three or four years in making specific preparation for teaching in the grades of this city. These sudden changes of policy are breaking the morale of the faculty of the teachers college as well as that of the prospective teachers.

The situation is aggravated by the experience of those who are on the waiting list to remain for two or more years. Many of them accept day-to-day substitute service in the public schools as occasion offers. What more effective method could have been devised for breaking down their professional morale and their ethical standards before they have had a chance to enter upon the professional service for which most of them have in good faith prepared themselves? The word has gone out to their brothers and sisters who are now in high school with the result that it is now freely predicted by competent authorities that in another three-year period there will again be an actual shortage of teachers.

Now then for a glance at the brighter picture—that of the other city, this one of medium size. The superintendent of schools has been making a continuous study for a number of years of the replacement needs of his schools. He has long ago given up the administration of his school system on the basis of a series of crude guesses. He knows how to make figures prophesy. For a long while this city has had an effective program of guidance in its high schools. Its teachers college has been conspicuously successful in attracting a high percent of the most promising high-school graduates as applicants for admission. At the last registration period one out of every seven seeking admission was accepted. This teachers college is clearly and definitely recognized as a service agency with the one specific function of making and remaking the professional teaching staff for the city's schools. Its officers and faculty are not required or expected to provide three or four years of free education for those who do not contemplate teaching or for those well-meaning but incompetent young people who would like to teach if they could be relieved of all responsibility in the matter.

The policy of creating an unnecessary surplus of teachers to go on a waiting list with the attendant risk of their becoming seriously disgruntled by the prolonged delay in securing appointment does not have the sanction of the school authorities in this city. They know that anything more than a nominal surplus will, in due time, result in salary reductions, or what amounts to the same thing—the assignment of superstandard teaching loads. They want the highest quality, and they know that the teachers college has a selective as well as an educative function. They know, too, that when the waiting list is long the longest waiters, that is to say, generally speaking, those who have least initiative, will ultimately fill their schools. Many of the more energetic will have been well-placed in other employment before they can be reached on the school appointment list and their services will be lost to the school system and to the profession.

Effective guidance in high school, selective admission, adequate and intensive training, and early appointment of those who have made a superior record—these they have found to be the means of creating a competent teaching staff.

In city school systems it is easier, for obvious reasons, than in state school systems to predict the number of teachers of each kind that will be needed each year. In those large cities which maintain their own teacher-training institutions it is easier to prepare approximately the right number for each branch of the service for which the institution affords preparation than it is in state systems of teachers colleges to render a similar service. Since teachers of good training in non-urban territory tend to move in the direction of urban centers, these cities find it easy to recruit by examination or otherwise the teachers necessary to fill the special types of positions for which their own municipal teachers colleges do not provide appropriate initial training.

In the smaller and more populous states in the east the situation is closely analogous to that of the large urban centers. They have long maintained excellent high schools easily accessible in all parts of the state. Their public teacher-training institutions are adequate in number and likewise are well distributed. Every remote section of the commonwealth is near enough to some one or more of these schools to send its quota to be prepared for teaching. This is true in New England generally except possibly in the upper tier of counties in Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont.

In Massachusetts the normal schools and teachers colleges are so close together that a public official may visit or inspect three or four of them in a day. Some years ago they adopted the plan of differentiating functions and so there is no unnecessary duplication or expense in training the various kinds of specialists. Their output supplies the needs of the schools for all types of positions. With the development of better plans for selective admission and the lengthening of curriculums we may expect in the near future that this state will have an all but perfect balance of supply and demand. This is equally true of Connecticut.

Students in the Rhode Island State College of Education commute daily from the remotest parts of the state and on commutation tickets furnished by the state. President Alger's quota plan of admission has been in effective operation for some years past and has given that little state a more perfect distribution of available "novice" teachers than is to be found in any other state or in most of our large cities.

In New Jersey the normal schools, most of them established comparatively recently, are easily accessible to their several constituencies. The continuous survey of replacement needs, which has been made in recent years, together with the differentiation of function in some of the schools, the limitation of enrolment, and the assignment of quotas to be admitted to the several schools and curriculums, will soon give us equilibrium between supply and demand. In Delaware and Maryland the teacher-training facilities have been brought nearer home to all the young people of the state by the grant of general maintenance scholarships. As a result of such favoring conditions as I have mentioned we have, generally speaking, an excellent distribution of available "novice" or "beginning" teachers throughout the northeastern section of the United States.

In the newer and larger states the problem of distance presents some insuperable difficulties in connection with the matter of getting a fair geographical distribution of those who are prepared for teaching. We have somewhat accentuated this particular difficulty in a few of these states by concentrating the teacher-training program in one or in a few very large institutions. This policy has undoubtedly contributed to the stranglehold the high-school training class has gotten in some of the larger agricultural states.

The arts and science college as a factor in teacher supply is increasingly difficult to reckon with. It was once the chief source from which "novice" high-school teachers were drawn. It still is in many states. When the two-year public normal schools expanded their programs to four years and began granting degrees and training high-school teachers, as well as elementary-school teachers, the arts and science college in many instances redoubled its efforts to hold its position of relative importance. Whatever may be the ultimate outcome of the contest for supremacy in this field, the immediate effect has been to unduly increase the relative number of newly certificated high-school teachers as against the number of newly certificated elementary school teachers. It is pretty clear that a survey would show that in states where private colleges (including denominational colleges) exist in large numbers and are accredited for certification purposes, a disproportionately large percent of new licenses to teach have been granted for the secondary school service.

It must be evident, from the brief and necessarily inadequate and incomplete survey I have thus far made of prevailing conditions, that the problem is at best a complicated and baffling one.

The state educational authorities and the authorities of both public and accredited private teacher-training institutions have a divided responsibility for its solution.

It must be at once apparent that unless there is set up in some form a unified control of the state agencies, which prepare and certificate teachers with trained experts to make comprehensive and continuous studies of demand and supply and with financial resources to give adequate publicity to the facts, individual institutions, both public and private, will continue to blunder on as best they can without rendering collectively their best services and will often unwittingly be at cross purposes with one another.

It must be apparent also that even the public teacher-training institutions are almost sure to lack fundamental coordination with one another unless expert direction is given from a central office of control. Such direction at its best could promote rather than destroy institutional autonomy within its proper sphere of usefulness. It could support all individual institutions whose legitimate function is teacher training in their efforts to win larger recognition of the importance of this service and more adequate support for it. It could lead in the movement:

1. To cut off all forms of short-term training and provisional or "emergency" certification which are no longer necessary to provide an adequate number of "novice" teachers.
2. To determine on a rational basis the special functions of the individual public teacher-training institutions of the state and to allocate to each its share of the total service load.
3. To provide a proper sphere of influence to such private teacher-training institutions as are prepared and willing to render acceptable service to the state.
4. To cut off promptly the privilege of accreditation from such as do not come up to satisfactory standards of service.
5. To develop through state conferences and otherwise a fine spirit of cooperation among the institutions, public and private, within the state which have to do with educating and reeducating the public school teaching staff.

There is no doubt whatever that state departments of education could effect a better adjustment in some of these matters without the exercise of force, if they were able to supply the definite and reliable information needed alike by public and private teacher-training institutions.

These things having been well done, the duty and responsibility of the individual teacher-training institution, it would seem, is clearly:

1. To interpret more fully and adequately to parents and to the more promising potential teachers than has ordinarily been done the social significance of the mission and ministry of the teacher, the increasingly adequate remuneration offered in recent years, and the large returns in personal satisfaction which have been the just reward of capable, industrious, and devoted teachers throughout our history in every section of our country.
2. To accept responsibility for the selection of a proper quota of the most promising potential teachers who apply for admission.
3. To defend the rights of the children in our public schools by rigorously eliminating all admittees who have failed to demonstrate a reasonable measure of competency as apprentice teachers, or have proved themselves unworthy of an opportunity to enter the calling after a fair trial.

By doing these things faithfully and well the standards of admission to teaching may be made dynamic standards rather than merely formularistic standards and may be kept on as high a plane always and everywhere as circumstances will permit.

B. HOW CAN WE INDUCE A SATISFACTORY PERCENT OF THE BEST POTENTIAL TEACHERS TO UNDERTAKE PREPARATION FOR THIS SERVICE?[1]

JOSEPH E. BURK, DEAN OF MEN, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, DENTON, TEXAS

We must assume (1) that we are *not* getting a satisfactory percent of the best potential teaching material; (2) that we already know what constitutes a good potential teacher (or that the speaker next following will tell us how he may be discovered); and (3) that a satisfactory percent means an equal ratio to those who choose other professions.

Why discuss a topic of this sort? Are not our teachers colleges overflowing with students? Do not the applicants for admission far exceed the number we can accept?

Despite such a situation, there is ample warrant for a vigorous campaign to attract students—not more students, but better potential teachers, in fact, the best potential teachers. Shall we be satisfied with quantity? Are we complacently assuming that because teacher-preparation agencies already have more applicants than can be accepted we have no problem of supply? What assurance have we that this throng is the one we want—or ought to have? Do we believe that it consists of the *best* potential teacher material in our respective areas?

A quotation from a doctor's thesis not yet completed will serve to give emphasis to what is meant. The author of the dissertation quotes a principal of a middle Atlantic states teacher-training school as follows:

> The normal school does not issue many publications. . . . Our difficulty is that more students are making application for admission than we are able to accommodate. . . . If the school were more widely known our difficulties in this respect would be increased.

This gentleman has voiced the common sentiment in regard to student supply. There is no recognition of a problem in this direction. Contrast his statement, however, with one from President Rockwell:

> Having a larger number of applicants than we can possibly accommodate, we have not made special efforts to emphasize the opportunities we offer to high-school graduates. This is undoubtedly poor policy because, while we have an over-supply of candidates, we have not made sufficient efforts to improve the quality.[2]

The contrast lies, of course, in the circumstance that the second man does recognize the fact that teacher-preparation agencies have a problem in improving the quality of those who present themselves as candidates for admission. We must accustom ourselves to the idea that mere *numbers* of applicants are no guarantee in themselves that high-grade teaching potentialities are proportionately present.

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[1] This is one of five addresses built around the general theme as indicated on page 820.

[2] Questionnaire reply.

The importance of education in a democracy is axiomatic. The progress of civilization depends on the processes of education. It follows, then, that every effort to induce the best qualified to enter our teacher-preparation institutions is justifiable. The avowed purpose of teachers colleges is to prepare teachers who shall make more effective the educative process. Can there be any doubt that the first step in improving the quality of instruction in our public schools is to improve the quality of those who present themselves as candidates for preparation to teach?

A study of current efforts to secure the best potential material—as revealed in answers many of you have made to a recent questionnaire and as discovered from other sources—indicates four lines of action.

I. Activities Looking Toward Cooperation from Public School Superintendents, Principals, Supervisors, and High-School Teachers

The first of these means of increasing the supply of more highly desirable applicants can best be realized through visits by superintendents, principals, supervisors, and high-school teachers to such institutions. A knowledge of the program, a first-hand acquaintance with the actual work done, and an opportunity to watch the school in operation will go far toward creating a sympathetic attitude on the part of these men and women who are expected to employ later the graduates of the institution. It is suggested that the visitors—guests of the college for the day—should see not a special program of activities but the everyday procedures. Students, either singly or in clubs, should be allowed to act as guides; visitors with special interests should be allowed as much time as they desire to observe certain phases of the work which have a particular attraction for them. Demonstrations should be arranged so that all activities from kindergarten to the highest classes taught are available for observation.

Observation only, however, is not sufficient. Arrangements should be made for a final gathering of these guests at which a round-table discussion under the guidance of the institution's professional leader—the president, dean, or director of teacher training—would summarize and interpret the activities observed. At such a conference those responsible for the institution's welfare could obtain suggestions for betterment of the procedure; but the great value of such a program of observation and discussion lies in the possibility of gaining a sympathetic understanding of the superintendents, principals, supervisors, and high-school teachers who are present.

Your indulgence is asked while a little more is said on this matter of making contacts between normal school and public school. There should be visitation from the teacher-preparation agency to the public school. Your attention is directed to several instances of one type of visitation or the other.

The Kalamazoo, Michigan, plan was presented to you last year by Professor C. H. Judd. You will remember that he reported as follows:

> The teachers college at Kalamazoo, Michigan, organized a month ago a conference of superintendents and other school officials for the purpose of discussing problems of school organization and administration, with special reference to the needs of southwestern Michigan. Such conferences are known in other parts of the country. They have frequently been held in state universities, and, in a few instances, in teacher-training institutions.

A second illustration is particularly significant because it shows how the students of the normal school may be employed in this connection. Miss Pearl Dustin, a member of the class of 1923, Cleveland School of Education, reported to the 1927 Spring Conference conducted by the Normal School and Teachers College Section of the New York Society for The Experimental Study of Education as follows:

> These student committeemen proceeded to "educate" their former principals, and to invite them to spend a certain day at the college as guests of the faculty and of their former students.
>
> The principals arrived at nine oclock in the morning. They were greeted in the office by the head of the institution. The student committeemen then took charge, presenting them in the assembly, where they heard six three-minute speeches interpreting the school's program of service, ushering them into classrooms, conducting them through the demonstration school, and entertaining them at luncheon. After the lunch period, each principal was given an opportunity to meet with his own alumnæ in a separate room; to discuss with them their work, their particular interests in the college, and their outlook on teaching. Then followed a meeting with the Admissions Committee (a joint student-faculty committee), where suggestions were made as to the best way of interpreting to the high-school students the teachers college program of service. As a result, the principals requested that the president of the college send us all back on a day agreed upon, to our respective high schools to give programs of interpretation in the several assemblies.

In passing, the action of the California, Pennsylvania, State Teachers College should be noted. President R. M. Steele, reporting at the conference of the same organization in 1929, expresses himself in unequivocal terms:

> To be understood and appreciated the teachers college must interpret its aims and purposes to the public it serves. It is dependent on public support. It serves the public need. To create intelligent and sympathetic support it must go more than half way to establish contact with school superintendents, high-school principals and teachers, parents, and high-school pupils. To serve the public need the teachers college staff must go out into the field and become personally and intimately acquainted with these needs and with actual school conditions. It cannot depend on chance or on its graduates to interpret its advancing standards to school people. The movement has been so rapid that the graduate of five years or even two years ago fails almost utterly to appreciate the ideals and the advancing standards of today.
>
> The teachers college must bring school people to its halls and must send its faculty and students out to high schools, thus maintaining close and constant contact with the field.

We have found that small group conferences held at the college are especially helpful in developing in the minds of superintendents and high-school principals an appreciation of advancing college requirements and standards. We have been careful to invite to the same conferences groups whose professional problems are quite similar and have arranged for round-table discussions at which each visitor has the opportunity to ask questions and present his views. These conferences are called on days when the college is in regular session and one part of the day is occupied in visiting classes, in visiting the demonstration school, and in inspecting the plant in general. The round-table discussion occupies about an hour in the forenoon and a similar period in the afternoon. To this conference are invited those members of the staff who are free and usually some member of the staff presents briefly some phase of the teachers college program and attempts to make clear to the visitors the new standards as they develop and to tell how the college functions in working out these advancing standards. Such questions as admission requirements, selection of students, courses required, contact of subjectmatter courses with demonstration school, organization and operation of practise teaching are taken up. The visitors ask questions and make suggestions and a mutual understanding results, helpful alike to college and public school official.

One feature of the conference is a dinner served to the visitors and members of the staff followed by a social hour. This social hour adds to the conference the "lobby" feature which has become so popular and so helpful at national and state conventions. Visitors discuss with each other and with members of the staff their own peculiar problems in an informal way. Conferences of county superintendents, district superintendents, supervising principals, and high-school principals have been held at the California State Teachers College.

A practise we have found mutually helpful is to have members of the college staff consult with high-school seniors and give information about the state teacher-training programs and assistance in selecting teacher-training curriculums. High-school students are intensely interested in college life and we have found that college students seem able to interpret college life better to high-school students than do members of the staff. College seniors were excused from classes a day earlier at Easter vacation time and were asked to visit their own high schools. In preparation for these visits seniors made every effort to inform themselves fully on all points of the state program of teacher-training so as to answer questions put to them by high-school students in their own home towns. Conferences on their return to school gave much useful information as to the desirability of certain students from their home vicinities.

A most satisfactory arrangement in this respect is in operation at the State Normal School, Frostburg, Maryland, where members of the staff accompany normal school students when they go on speaking visits to high schools, meeting high-school seniors, and informing them regarding the work of the normal school, its courses, and its campus life.

The normal schools of New York State a year ago carried through a similar program on state-wide lines. The state office suggested to superintendents of the state that they invite representatives of teacher-training institutions to spend two days in their respective school systems. The normal schools in their turn reciprocated. Dr. Ned H. Dearborn, former State Director of Teacher Training, states that the plan worked in a highly satisfactory manner for a beginning and gave promise of even better results at a second trial.

The writer is indebted to Miss Bertha Kain, viceprincipal of the Newark, New Jersey, Normal School, for the following statement:

> It is the custom of the New Jersey State Normal School at Newark to invite, from time to time, groups of superintendents, supervising principals, and training teachers to spend a day at the Normal School in conference on problems common to both the normal school and the elementary schools. The guests are invited to visit classes and to attend a regular assembly of the school at which time a brief program is usually arranged by the students which illustrates somewhat the student activities. Very often the program includes a speaker of educational repute. Following the auditorium period is a period of open conference at which time problems pertaining to teacher training are discussed. In this way, the normal school and those in charge of the elementary schools in which the normal school assigns students to practise become better acquainted with each other and come to a fuller understanding of the ways and means of serving each other.
>
> A social aspect is given to these conferences. The guests are always requested to remain for an informal luncheon.

The plans suggested for your consideration may be objected to on the ground that they are only effective in densely populated areas. That objection, of course, is valid but it is hoped that the suggested plans can be modified to suit local conditions. The normal schools and teachers colleges *must* sell themselves to public school officials. To use the forceful language of a middle western normal college president:

> Superintendents and principals must come to appreciate more fully that the teacher-preparing institutions can not turn out good teachers unless they have good material to work with.

The point is that a closer, more intimate acquaintance is the first step in this direction.

II. Publicity through the Printed Word

Little need be said in this company concerning the second line of action: Publicity through the printed word. Unless directed, printed material will do little to "induce a satisfactory percent of the best potential teachers to undertake preparation for this service." The replies to the questionnaire mentioned earlier indicate that many institutions *are* directing their printed material in the channels where it will do the most good. A few illustrations should serve our purpose.

The Eastern State Teachers College, Madison, South Dakota, sends "sales letters" to high-school seniors and to high-school superintendents.

The Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Texas, sends a "letter to every superintendent represented by a student in the college requesting his best students."

The Western Illinois State Teachers College devotes the December, 1928, number of its quarterly to *The Opportunities in Public School Teaching in Illinois*. Chapters with titles significant for this paper: *School Positions in the State, Salaries for Teachers, Traits or Qualities of a Successful Teacher.*

The Arizona State Teachers College, Tempe, Arizona, suggests "publicity through the press in high-school papers and annuals. . . . Follow-up correspondence with promising high-school students and their parents."

Central State Teachers College, Stevens Point, Wisconsin:

> Our chief effort has been in the direction of enlisting the interests of high-school principals and superintendents in encouraging the most promising high-school people to come to this institution. Each fall in November we write a letter emphasizing the importance of their sending us superior young people if they wish to have us send them superior teachers. Upon receipt of senior lists from these principals we write letters to those who are checked as being especially promising and put a challenge up rather definitely to them.

One might multiply instances, but these five from widely separated institutions are enough to indicate that teachers colleges over the country are using the printed word as a means of attracting prospective teaching material. The point here is that efforts to attract the *best* potential teachers should be directed to the superintendents, the prospective teachers, and their parents. General advertising is necessary; but carefully directed appeals to the best prospective teachers are indispensable. To have more applicants from whom to choose is gratifying, but to have among them a satisfactory percent of the best potential teachers is satisfying.

One more suggestion must be given. The printed word should be not only directed effectively but written on the level of intelligence—in the case of high-school students, for instance—of the individuals to whom the appeal is made. We waste printer's ink when we write above the heads of our readers. "Sales letters" should be written to a specific high-school group by the person of your faculty who best understands high-school psychology and knows how to appeal to it.

III. The High-School Adviser and Vocational Guidance

Does the normal school or teachers college have any responsibility in this connection? Is not the guidance program in the public school the exclusive business of the public school? By no means! Miss Olive Jones, former president of the National Education Association, states, regarding one report which she had occasion to study:

> One such report contains detailed information, advantages attractively stated, disadvantages frankly given, of six or seven different occupations, teaching not even mentioned. No report found which does give such data.

Although one instance is not sufficient basis for a generalization, it is submitted that the situation revealed by Miss Jones is general. Is *that* our business? We should see that teaching is presented to public school children. To quote Miss Jones again:

> Counselors are teachers. Why forget and belittle their own work and omit it from choice of girls? What respect for their opinions and advice when girls see before them as counselor someone who follows an occupation she does not advise them to follow?

The teacher-preparation agencies have a duty to themselves in this connection. It is possible that we have been unaware of the situation. A brief excerpt from a report of Professor Steven Clement of the State Teachers College, Buffalo, New York, may make conditions in 1926 vivid. He states:

> It is clear that the teacher-training institutions of the cities are not doing a great deal toward recruitment or selection of a high grade of candidates. . . . They are considering those who present themselves and are cutting down the number by purely mechanical means.

Does this situation have any significance for those of us who are associated with state institutions? If the "tie up" between public school and city training school has been no closer than stated by Professor Clement, what of the relation of state institutions to the public schools of their much more widely separated service areas?

Those responsible for our state institutions can learn something from a study of procedures in our city training schools. Mrs. Minnie Carson Kelsey, coordinating counselor for Bridgeport, Connecticut, reported in 1927 to the Spring Conference on Problems in Teacher-Training, New York City:

> In order to get the best potential teachers for training in our normal schools, we feel that we must go back into the high schools and set up a definite program of guidance and selection.

Time will not permit an adequate discussion of the details, but one more quotation from Mrs. Kelsey is significant at this point:

> To obtain the best possible potential teachers for Bridgeport, it seemed necessary to find some way whereby the coldly mechanical factors of scholastic grades and intelligence ratings could be supplemented by something from the human nature side of high-school life. We are using individual and group conferences to meet this need.

The plea here is: state institutions must realize that, to improve the quality of the applicants for admission, they must see to it that teaching as a profession calling for the *best* of our high-school graduates be presented to them.

IV. Organized Effort by Faculties of Teacher-Training Institutions to Interest the Best Potential Teachers in Preparation for the Service

A study of the questionnaire replies indicates that many teachers colleges are making a definite and organized effort through visitation of faculty members to high schools. Chosen almost at random, the following schools, among others, report favorably:

Shippensburg, Pennsylvania:

> Under this system the type of students coming to us has been greatly improved. Statistics show that twenty percent of our student body ranked in the upper third of their class, scholastically.

The Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College:

> This school maintains a speaker's bureau to send members of the faculty to the various high schools of the state to make contact with those who are graduating.

The University of Akron
The Southern Oregon State Normal School
North Adams, Massachusetts, State Normal School:

> Berkshire County has done a very unique and excellent thing in what is called the College Conference for High-School Students. Each year higher institutions are invited to send representatives for two days to the Berkshire high schools. Short addresses are made to the student bodies in as many high schools as time will permit from 9 oclock to the closing hour. Two evenings are given in all the larger schools at which representatives of all the schools meet pupils and parents who are interested. The normal school is always included in these college meets and has been represented by the principal himself for the last three years.
>
> In addition to the above, individual visits are made to other high schools and various members of the normal school faculty present the matter at different times during the year.

Central State Teachers College, Mount Pleasant, Michigan. President Warriner writes:

> It is our practise from time to time during the school year to have members of our faculty visit the high schools of this area and speak to the entire school or to the junior and senior students on the satisfactions and opportunities of teaching as a career.

Again instances might be multiplied; the suggestion is offered that representatives of the teachers colleges stress not only the satisfactions and opportunities but also the fact that we want only the *best* potential teachers.

As this writer sees the problem of "inducing a satisfactory percent of the best potential teachers to undertake preparation for this service," there are four main lines of attack: closer contact with school officials; *directed* publicity; a fair presentation by guidance people of teaching as a profession; and organized faculty effort to make contact with the *best* potential teachers.

C. HOW CAN WE SET UP DEFENSIBLE POLICIES AND WORK OUT EFFECTIVE PROGRAMS FOR THE SELECTIVE ADMISSION OF ENTRANTS TO TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS[1]

ALONZO F. MYERS, DIRECTOR, TEACHER PREPARATION, CONNECTICUT STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION, HARTFORD, CONN.

Any serious discussion of selective admission of candidates for admission to teacher-training institutions must carry with it the recognition of the right and the duty of these institutions to limit the number of candidates they will admit. Furthermore, it should be recognized that selection can be made only where more candidates apply than should be admitted. Only recently has the country been confronted with a serious over-supply of candidates for teaching positions, and with many more candidates for admission to teacher-training institutions than should be admitted.

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[1] This is one of five addresses built around the general theme as indicated on page 820.

Considered as a whole, the teacher-training institutions of the country are wholly unprepared for meeting the problem presented by a serious over-supply of teachers. The only exceptions to this statement are the city teacher-training institutions. State normal schools and teachers colleges have grown accustomed to measure their success by the growth in their enrolments, and to justify their budgetary requests by predicting further growth. Our graduate schools of education have set the pace in measuring greatness by numbers. In general this was quite satisfactory until recently. The alarming aspect is that we may be failing to recognize the changed situation.

The teacher-training institution which will graduate over five percent more candidates for teaching next June than can be placed next September is contributing to the aggravation of one of the most serious problems now confronting American education.

The Connecticut State Board of Education recognizes its obligation to prepare only as many elementary teachers annually as are needed by the state. Furthermore, we know how many are needed and we are able to predict our needs for the near future.

Apostles of growth will derive little nourishment from these figures for Connecticut:

	Total No. of teachers employed	Total No. of new teachers	Total No. of elementary teachers in state	Total No. of new elementary teachers
1924–25	9143	1032	6544	693
1925–26	9629	923	6728	586
1926–27	9891	927	....	603
1927–28	10186	913	6833	599
1928–29	10528	864	7057	512

The number of graduates of Connecticut State Normal Schools in 1929 was fewer than in 1924. The number will be reduced still further in 1930.

In September, 1929, there were employed in Connecticut a total of 512 elementary teachers who were new to teaching in Connecticut that year. Of these, 91 were experienced in other states, and 69 were inexperienced graduates of out-of-state normal schools. The contribution of Connecticut normal schools was 352. Connecticut state normal schools graduated 412 students in June, 1929.

The Connecticut State Board of Education recognizes that admission to a state normal school is a privilege and not a right. Accordingly it recognizes the responsibility of the normal schools for selecting candidates for admission to the end that the best qualified candidates may be admitted. The number to be admitted each year is determined in the light of the probable demand.

In the past our plan for selecting candidates has been faulty due to the fact that insufficient information was available on which to base selection. We are endeavoring to correct that difficulty through a new plan for selective admissions, which has been recommended to the State Board of Education, to become effective with the classes to be admitted in September, 1931.

In the past we had only the secondary record with certain requirements as to subjects and marks, plus a certificate of moral character by the high-school principal, and a physical examination. The new plan provides for the following:

1. High-school graduation with certain requirements as to subjects

2. A statement from the high-school principal giving the comparative standing of the student in the class

3. Certificate of moral character

4. A recommendation by the high-school principal and the superintendent that the candidate be admitted to the normal school

5. A rating on a five point scale by the high-school principal or by the adviser of girls on the following points:

	A	B	C	D	E
Studious habits					
Punctuality					
Neatness					
Perseverance					
Initiative					
Cooperation					
Leadership					
Popularity					
Cheerfulness					
Health					

NOTE.—A—Excellent, B—Very Good, C—Good, D—Fair, E—Poor.

6. A declaration by the candidate of intention to teach in Connecticut.

7. Candidates for admission will be required to spend an entire day at the normal school on the second Saturday in June for the following: general information test, mental alertness test, interview.

8. Physical examination by a physician selected and paid by the State Board of Education.

Based upon the information indicated above, the normal school principal with the advice of his faculty will endeavor to select the best qualified candidates for admission. He must keep the number selected within the number provided for in his quota.

The pertinent facts which we must recognize relative to this situation are:

1. Fundamental conditions relative to supply of and demand for teachers have changed completely during the past ten years.

2. The city teacher-training institutions were confronted with the necessity for limiting their enrolments and for selecting candidates for admission several years ago. They have made great progress in the solution of this problem.

3. The state teacher-training institutions are now confronted with the problem and they are not prepared to meet it. They have much to learn from the city normal schools and teachers colleges.

4. We must educate ourselves and the public to the realization that (1) admission to a state teachers college is a privilege and not a right; (2) the best interests of the public, of the children, and of the teaching profession will be served through the adoption of a policy of restricting the output of teacher-training institutions in the light of the demand for teachers, of selecting very carefully the candidates for admission, and of progressively elevating the standards for certification for teaching.

If we do not adopt such a policy we shall be confronted very soon with an enormous surplus of candidates for teaching positions, with a consequent lowering of salaries, and inevitably with a demoralized and inferior teaching staff in our public schools.

D. HOW CAN WE EFFECT THE EARLY IDENTIFICATION, AND THE CERTAIN ELIMINATION OF STUDENTS DISTINCTLY UNPROMISING AS PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS[1]

EDWIN W. ADAMS, DIRECTOR OF NORMAL AND PRACTICE SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The solution of the problem of early identification and certain elimination of students distinctly unpromising as prospective teachers is closely tied up with the effectiveness with which we work out programs for selective admission. Theoretically an effective program of selective admission would eliminate entirely distinctly unpromising material. Practically, even a good program strictly enforced will admit some who are distinctly unpromising.

The problem before us falls into two parts; first, identification; second, elimination.

Before attempting to work out any scheme for the identification of students distinctly unpromising as prospective teachers, let us consider briefly what constitutes distinctly unpromising teacher material. There will probably be little objection to including in such a description the following items: a degree of intelligence so low as to make for inability to do with reasonable success the required academic work of the school, and to insure an adequate knowledge of the subjectmatter of instruction of the grades for which preparation is being made; ill health or other physical disability; speech defects including foreign accent; faulty English; nervous instability or other mental disorder; immoral conduct or behavior of an un-social or anti-social nature. The introduction of the term personality into the above list would probably not be so generally acceptable even though we might agree that from many angles it vitally affects the question of desirability.

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[1] This is one of five addresses built around the general theme as indicated on page 820.

If we should agree on the above list it might be possible to work out some plan for the early identification of the distinctly unpromising students. For purposes of discussion I shall interpret the word "early" as referring to some time within or not later than the close of the student's first full year in the institution. I should like to lay down the proposition that the problem of identification is a whole faculty problem, and not that of the president alone or of some small group or committee of the faculty.

For the purpose of provoking discussion and with the hope that your criticisms may assist us, I shall take the liberty of outlining briefly a plan with which we are experimenting in part in the Philadelphia Normal School.

Each section of an entering freshman class has assigned to it a faculty adviser. These advisers are named from among the members of the instructional staff who are responsible for teaching some subject to the members of the section to which they are assigned. The faculty adviser serves as record keeper for the section and also has some extracurriculum contact with the students. The advisers of the several sections of the freshman class constitute a committee whose functions include a study of the personnel with a view to determine which students, if any, are lacking in those qualities which we believe are essential to teaching success.

The committee has placed at its disposal all records relating to the students in the freshman class. These records include those of high-school work, medical inspectors' records, results of speech examinations, reports of the personality examining committee, reports of results in subjectmatter tests, reports of work done in academic classes in the school, reports of the findings and recommendations of the English cooperative committee, results of group and individual psychological examinations, reports of the morale committee, and any other material which from time to time may become available.

Every candidate who has qualified for admission to the school is given a personality examination. This is a part of our plan for selective admission, and results in some applicants being refused admission even after all other admission requirements have been satisfied. In another sense, however, this is our first step toward the identification of the unfit since the students being given this personality examination have met all the legal requirements for admission. Marked personality deficiencies are noted. Conditions of personal cleanliness, neatness of dress, poise, mannerisms, evidences of culture, crudeness, and quality of voice are among the factors considered. If the examining committee believes the candidate to be unsatisfactory teacher material, it sends him together with a written statement of its decisions to the reviewing committee. If in the judgment of this committee the candidate is unsatisfactory, he may be admitted only after appeal to the associate superintendent of schools in charge of the normal school. The records of the personality examinations of all students are filed and constitute the basis for the initial study of the committee in charge of identification and elimination.

As soon as conveniently possible after admission all students are given a thorough medical examination by one of the physicians assigned by the board of education to the normal school. On the basis of these examinations the medical inspectors, the school nurse, and the principal of the school begin an active campaign. Students requiring medical or surgical treatment are so informed and the parents notified. Students who are underweight are required to attend a nutrition class. Students who are overweight are sent into special classes for instruction in diet and for special exercise. Proper correction of visual defects and the securing and use of glasses are enforced. The proper relation between the medical and the administrative forces does much to make for the success of such a campaign. When, however, in the judgment of the medical authorities the student's health is such as to interfere with the proper performance of duty, or will make it impossible for the physician to approve the student's health record for graduation and certification, the parents are notified and steps are taken to bring about the withdrawal of the student from the school. In serious cases students may be dropped from the school upon the recommendation of the medical authorities.

Students having speech defects which are remediable within one year are admitted with the understanding that they must attend the speech clinic regularly. Failure to make such improvement as will permit the supervisor to make satisfactory report of the student's progress by the end of the year is followed by request for withdrawal. Students who have completed successfully all requirements for graduation and who have failed to secure the final approval of the speech improvement department are refused graduation until such speech defects have been corrected.

Every student is given a psychological test shortly after his admission to the school. Students about whose intelligence question is raised are given individual psychological examinations. We have in some instances discovered students whose psychological rating seemed to indicate that they would be unable to do work of college grade. We have never used this as a basis for dismissal but have made a careful study of each such student's classroom work and required fortnightly reports from all teachers instructing the student. In last analysis the real test of a student's intelligence is his ability to do the required work of the school. In almost every instance where such a student has seemed to be succeeding it has been with barely passing grades. These sometimes reflect the unwillingness of teachers to take the responsibility for failing a student. In such instances the fortnightly report and the requirement that all written papers be examined by the faculty committee act as a check on misplaced sympathy.

In the development of our curriculum we have presupposed an adequate knowledge on the part of every student of the subjectmatter of the grades for which preparation is being made and have planned our professionalized subjectmatter courses with this thought in mind. In spite of the fact that such courses as English, American history, and mathematics have occupied much of the student's attention in the high school, it is a matter of common knowledge that they are frequently woefully weak when confronted with the task of demonstrating even reasonable mastery of these subjects. In order to correct this difficulty we give to all students entering the Philadelphia Normal School a series of tests in the subjects they will be called upon to teach. Failure successfully to pass any of these examinations results in the student being conditioned in the subject. Student and parents are immediately notified of the failure, informed that it will be necessary for the student to make preparation on his own initiative for examination in the fields in which failure has occurred, and that failure on the part of the student to pass in a re-examination will result in his being dropped from the school. We have found a rather close relationship between failure in the subject-matter tests, low ranking in intelligence tests, and grades in normal school subjects.

One of the surest means of early identification is to be found in the success or failure of the student in the regular subjects of instruction. The work of students who are failing is analyzed by the committee. This analysis makes for closer scrutiny of the work of such students and tends to place on the defensive the faculty members who are giving passing grades. Monthly reviews of the rolls of the entire class are effective in turning light on possible unpromising material.

Lack of ability to use with fair degree of fluency reasonably accurate English is one of the conditions frequently found as a direct or contributing cause for teacher failure. Here we have in measurable form material which affords insight into background, culture, experience, intelligence. A student may have one kind of English for his English professor and an entirely different kind for all other contacts. The English which he habitually uses in general situations is likely to be the English he will use when facing a class. To meet this situation we have organized an English Cooperative Committee. To it are referred all cases of poor English that have come to the attention of members of the faculty in every department. When a student has been reported to the committee a flyer is sent to all members of the faculty calling for additional information as to the student's oral and written English. At the request of the committee all written papers of the student in question must be submitted. Written reports are also required on the student's oral English. Students are given to understand that ratings in English are dependent upon all work done and that failure to maintain a reasonable standard of good English in other subjects will result in a failing rating in English and possible request for withdrawal.

There are two other methods that may be used to assist in the early identification of unpromising material; the prognostic test, and preliminary participation.

I feel that we have not advanced sufficiently in our testing program to enable us, on the basis of the prognostic tests, to predict with any degree of certainty probability of teaching success. The solution of this problem lies in the future. The results of such tests are valuable when used to enable us to interpret other data. We should hesitate long before pressing for withdrawal of a student on the basis of such tests unsupported by other facts.

Preliminary participation in teaching under proper direction may serve to reveal to the student and the responsible members of the teacher-training staff elements of strength or weakness in the prospective teacher. Certain defects, or deficiencies in fundamentals may be revealed such as English, speech defects, nervousness, lack of interest in children and in teaching. Some of these may be so marked as to make it fairly easy to convince the student that he has made a mistake in choosing teaching as a vocation. We should not, however, lose sight of the fact that our teacher-preparation institutions exist for the purpose of providing training. Occasionally students who in teaching contacts during the first year in college seem to lack desirable teaching traits develop these to a marked degree after longer contact with the college and practise school faculties. The principal value of preliminary teaching contacts seems to lie in the opportunities they afford for vitalizing the instructional work in the foundational and professional courses in the college.

The effective functioning of the faculty as a whole in the attempt to discover early unpromising teacher material may not overlook the problem of conduct. Young men and young women in teacher-preparation institutions should be impressed from the outset with the seriousness of the task that lies before them; with the idea that the school is a professional school; that they are by virtue of their presence in the school considered members of the teaching profession; and that nothing short of the highest type of professional attitude and conduct will be accepted. Students who are socially too immature to measure up to these standards or who are unable or unwilling to do so may rather easily be discovered during the first year.

I have intentionally omitted from this presentation the element of practise teaching. Next to failure in courses, failure here is probably most easily recognized, even though it may not be so easy to demonstrate to interested parents and friends. I have omitted it because our problem calls for "the early identification of distinctly unpromising students."

With the exception of definitely proved cases of dishonesty or immoral conduct we find that no single deficiency can stand by itself. Lack of intelligence may be manifest in the failures in subjectmatter tests, general scholarship, preliminary teaching contacts, and practise teaching. Poor health may be revealed in attendance, scholarship, lack of nervous stability, teaching contacts, and practise teaching. One of the most embarrassing situations that can arise is to discover after we have built up a good case against a student on the grounds of failure in intelligence tests, use of English, or other weakness, that this same student has been passed in allied and difficult subjects by members of our own faculty. It is certainly true as we attempt to bring about the elimination of the distinctively unpromising that "United we stand, divided we fall."

The replies to a recent questionnaire indicate that thirty-five normal schools and teachers colleges drop students even though they make passing grades, if they give no clear indication that they will succeed in classroom teaching; forty-two schools answered this question in the negative; four schools qualified their answers indicating that under certain conditions they drop unpromising teachers. I am not so sure after studying the results of this questionnaire that had it been differently worded there would have been so many replies in the affirmative. It is likely that the element of failure in practise teaching was responsible for the number of the affirmative replies. Nineteen schools stated that there were no practical difficulties in the way of eliminating the unpromising, the unfit, and the unworthy; six reported very little difficulty; five, no serious difficulty; and two, no difficulty of importance. Among the practical difficulties indicated by the remaining colleges the following seem to be most prominent: lack of definite standards with which to measure the evidence of unfitness; some state teachers colleges believe that a student who has made a passing grade in the subjects may not be dropped; public sentiment; influence of family, social, and political pressure; misplaced sympathy or failure to recognize social responsibility for the product of the teachers college on the part of some members of the faculty; lack of moral courage. Seventy-five schools reported that they had never been prevented by legal process from dropping an unpromising teaching prospect. One school stated that it had been prevented by legal action from dropping a student, but that since that time the law has been changed and that the president of the institution now has the right to eliminate a student if he believes the student to be incapable of becoming a successful teacher.

There are certain conditions which must be present if we are to bring about an effective program for the elimination of students distinctly unpromising as prospective teachers.

All admissions to teacher-preparation institutions should be on probation. In the case of city or state supported institutions this provision should be written definitely into the regulations governing the conduct of the school; in the case of private institutions it should be set up as a regulation approved by the governing board. Practise regarding the period of probation varies. Theoretically the ideal probationary period should be coextensive with the student's stay in the school; practically it may be necessary to limit it. In no case should it be for a period of less than one year. This condition of admission should be brought to the attention of prospective students and their parents or guardians, and the blank of application for admission to the institution should contain a statement to the effect that students and parents are cognizant of the regulation and agree to abide by the decision of the faculty in the event of the student being considered unsatisfactory teacher material.

Definite provision should be made in the rules and regulations governing the school to provide the proper officers of the institution with the necessary authority for bringing about the elimination of undesirable material. These first two points have been covered for the Philadelphia Normal School in Article XIV, Section 1, Clause (E) of the rules of the Board of Public Education which states "that their admission shall be for a probationary period not to exceed one year, during which time, on recommendation of the principal of the normal school and approval of the superintendent of schools, the names of students who have shown themselves unqualified by reason of temperament, personality, or other causes for the profession of teaching shall be dropped from the roll of the school."

Recognition by the faculty as a whole of its responsibility both for the identification of unpromising students and the need for concerted action when after full consideration the need for elimination has become evident.

The development of a system of record keeping and filing that will ensure the collection, care, and availability of all records and materials having bearing on possible elimination cases.

The organization within the faculty of such committees as will serve effectively to collect and study data bearing on evidence of student unfitness. These committees should meet regularly and report their findings to the faculty at the beginning of each school month.

A courageous and conscientious attitude on the part of every member of the faculty.

The student should be given opportunity to appear before the committees considering his case.

Provision should be made for official notification of the student and his parents of the findings of the committees. Carbon copies of all such communications should be kept on file.

When the decision has been made that the student is distinctly unpromising teacher material notify the student and his parents of this decision and request withdrawal.

If student refuses to withdraw, present final report of the several committees to the entire faculty with the recommendation that the necessary steps be taken to drop the student.

We have taken the position in Philadelphia that the Normal School exists to prepare young men and young women for the profession of teaching. We believe that we have the responsibility for seeing that the interests of the children of our city are protected; that the schools exist for the children and not for the purpose of providing employment to teachers. We do not regard the Normal School as a place where young men and women may secure further education at the cost of the community. Admission to the Normal School is understood to imply a real interest in teaching and a desire to make adequate preparation for it. Failure on the part of any student to evidence the qualities we believe necessary to insure teaching success is considered as sufficient to warrant the request for withdrawal or for dismissal.

E. *HOW CAN WE ESTABLISH AND MAINTAIN QUALITATIVE STANDARDS FOR GRADUATION AND FOR PROVISIONAL CERTIFICATION*[1]

CHARLES C. SHERROD, PRESIDENT, EAST TENNESSEE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, JOHNSON CITY, TENN.

It is only in recent years that the two ideas suggested in this question have been considered as having any vital connections and relationships. For decades the two paths leading to the service of teaching have seldom crossed. They have, however, had much in common, and especially has this been true in connection with the standards prevailing for graduation from teacher-training institutions, of whatever kind, and for certification through a system of examination. There has been a decided parallelism or correlation between the requirements demanded in these supposedly distinct and separate instruments of teacher control. In either case it has been possible for prospective teachers to gain legal qualifications to teach on the lowest level, and this persistency has brought the whole question of educational development to the present exigency. Our social progress will not endure with anything less than a well-trained teacher in each classroom. The problem is one of pointing the way out and of suggesting that the time is at hand when a decided step should be taken to place the status of teacher-training on a much higher level and, in so doing, eliminate the instruments of control that have tended to maintain low standards as the chief stumbling block, namely, low requirements for graduation from our training institutions and for provisional certification.

This suggests that two important aspects of the problem must be considered and met: (1) As it applies to those teachers entering the profession through the vestibule of institutional training the whole question of pre-preparation and guidance, selection of students, efficiency of teacher-training curriculums, organization and staff, as well as proper placement of graduates, all enter into the maintaining of standards. These standards cannot be artificial, inanimate, selfadministering factors, but must be a part of the life blood and vitality of the whole institutional program of service. (2) The second phase of our problem is no less serious. Short local training courses and the formal examination, with little or no prerequisite training, and administered by county superintendents who are really laymen, are yet too widespread and numerous to escape our challenge. There seems to be no territorial limit to their existence, but they are found north, east, south, and west. Biologists tell us that some of the most virulent human ailments come in organs whose usefulness has ceased. May it not be suggested that some causes of poorly trained teachers today lie in the instruments of certification whose usefulness has ceased to exist? Resort to the surgeon's knife would cut off a great part, and in many states an unneeded portion, of our low qualified teachers and thus automatically raise standards and make teaching a reputable profession.

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[1] This is one of five addresses built around the general theme as indicated on page 820.

These conditions have not been mere accidents but they are an outgrowth of the natural order of things. When public teacher-training institutions were first established, the immediate problem was to secure the largest number of students. Teachers were wanted and also numbers seemed to add prestige, and this was needed in the new institutions. They were public, and people felt that as such the doors should be open to all on a socalled "democratic basis" and to serve any purpose that should be desired irrespective of the original conception of institutional function or the ultimate goal of the individual. Thus many of these institutions became not only teacher-training but also college preparatory schools and girls' "finishing schools" as well. The element of competition entered and in seeking superiority in size, standards for entrance requirements and course requirements for graduation were greatly sacrificed.

The growth of high schools tended to eliminate the college preparatory demand. State support grew in proportion to needs; service areas were established; better cooperation developed between institutions and as a result the element of appealing for numbers was greatly reduced. Quality standards slowly entered and the distinct function of training a select group for the definite profession of teaching is gradually becoming the sole purpose of the institution. Quality is dependent to a great extent on the source of supply. Teacher-training institutions located in metropolitan areas and in states where the high school is most highly developed and the greatest surplus of teachers is found can more effectively use a higher degree of selectivity. It will naturally be in those centers that the greatest results can be attained in establishing and maintaining qualitative standards. It will be necessary for the institutions thus located to blaze the trail and those of us otherwise situated to follow just as rapidly as circumstances will permit.

The administering of quality standards has always carried with it some doubt as to what should be included. Generally we think of it as referring to what a student knows and how well this knowledge will function in actual apprentice teaching. Any system by which the student will know more is at once sound. Knowledge of subjectmatter is ever basic in a teacher. The matter of obtaining this in amount is the problem. Many institutions are attempting grading and classification schemes by which premium is placed upon superior work and by which the privilege of graduation is withheld if a low grade of work is done. The quality-point system by which students are given certain extra points for superior work is helping to maintain higher standards and will eliminate, if properly administered, those of lower achievement. In individual instances injustices may be done, but some system must be maintained by which the too low portion of those in our institutions will be eliminated if qualitative standards are to be maintained. It remains for us to refine the method.

Although the first and great task lies in the "What is to be taught?", it would seem that the real test of a student's probability for teaching lies in the apprentice teaching performance. This is the factor that will count in actual teaching service. Doubtless many of you know of instances in which students of relatively low rank in scholarship were able, through other so-called "personality qualities," to do a satisfactory and sometimes a superior type of apprentice teaching. Scholarship counts only insofar as it contributes to good classroom teaching. If teaching has a technic of its own, both as to organization of subjectmatter and the way in which it is presented to children of the various grade levels, scholarship is of little avail, unless there are those "other teaching qualities" to enable the beginning teacher to meet effectively real classroom situations.

Many difficulties stand in the way of administering this phase of teacher-training. Too many institutions are poorly equipped both in physical plant and in staff to give adequate apprentice teaching opportunity. Institutions are in some instances too far away from an adequate supply of children. The training program lacks integration. We are slowly developing certain technics for measuring professional classroom performance of apprentice teachers, but these will be of very little value unless the teaching situations present real life classroom opportunities. Still more difficult than the physical equipment of the laboratory school is the problem of a professionalized staff for such a school and the whole teacher-training program. For too many years the training institutions have depended upon the products of the graduate school of arts and sciences for this staff. Too often these folks have not had the professional viewpoint and have beeen unable to connect subjectmatter with the lives of children.

Our second problem, that of low standard provisional certification, is a "hold over" from the day when teaching was considered a layman's occupation. This condition has continued because legislatures are conservative; and since they are composed of laymen, the professional aspect of education is unknown to them. In too many states, educational leadership in the state educational office has been in the hands of non-expert, politically elected, or appointed individuals whose outlook on this whole matter has not been constructive. The pressure for this low type of certification has been augmented by the influence of local, short-course, poorly equipped high school and county training classes which in a former day, under different conditions, served a noble purpose. These persist in this new day simply because through a long period of service, a strong, loyal, local clientele has developed, whose political strength has had to be reckoned with.

With teachers legally certified on a low level of training, our educational progress is seriously handicapped. To make bad conditions worse, in the past teaching tenure has, on the average, been short. But many factors are at work that would indicate an extension of the period of teaching service, and the issuance of all kinds of certificates on the basis of professional training alone. This training should of course be on a high level. In those states where short-course institutions prevail, such training should come at once under the direct control of the state teachers college or normal school in whose service area they exist, and should be maintained only so long as the urgent need for their services may continue.

At this point let us look at the situation more in detail in order to discover whether or not our views are practical and consistent. The following question was sent to the state superintendents: "Do you have in your state a great over-supply of available teachers certificated for any particular kind of teaching service? If so, how would you explain the fact?" Twenty-three out of the thirty-four replying say "Yes." Some of the outstanding conditions are: in South Carolina 2½ teachers for each position; in Kentucky 30 percent of certified teachers are unemployed; in New Jersey 40 percent of last year's graduates of training institutions located in northern part of the state are without positions; in Kansas 10 percent surplus; in California a graduate of a teacher-training institution has one chance in four of securing a position. The explanations of this condition, except in places such as New Jersey and California, where location and economic forces are determining factors, have invariably been low forms of certification with little or no preservice training. Only one state, Vermont, reports a general shortage of teachers. The only significant shortage reported in other states has been in special fields, such as agriculture, home economics, commercial, industrial arts, and teachers for sub-normals. The shortage reported in the above is, when considered on a percentage basis, negligible.

Answers from 57 out of 90 teacher-training institutions replying say that an attempt is being made in their states to cut off the issuance of all forms of temporary and provisional certificates not actually necessary to keep up a full quota of teachers in the public schools. Thirty-two say that local high-school training classes and county normal schools are actually operating in such a way as to interfere with the high standards of preliminary training which the state teacher-training institutions might otherwise maintain. Sixty-five out of ninety of these same institutions say that the standards of admission to the teaching profession could be materially raised without reducing the supply below the minimum replacement needs.

I feel that it is not overdrawing the facts when we say that these conditions do present a challenge. The only question that remains is: Has the challenge become so vitalized that those interested in establishing and maintaining qualitative standards for graduation and for provisional certification will become militant in at once setting the machinery in action to tear down the instruments of control that have heretofore held teaching on its humble plane, namely, low forms of certification and short types of training?

CHANGING STANDARDS

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A combination of elements has caused an unprecedented interest in the education of teachers for all divisions of American schools. This interest is quite naturally attaching itself to the standards set up by such organizations as the American Association of Teachers Colleges, since their standards should represent at any time the best of current practise in the preparation of teachers.

Mention of some of the elements which have resulted in this interest in standards for the preparation of teachers may assist thinking upon the proposed changes which are to be brought before the Association at this meeting.

In the first place there is the effect of the American method of mass production upon standardization. There is, of course, some difference of opinion as to how valuable a contribution to civilization the development of this method has been, but regardless of how one may feel about that issue the method is here to stay. Some educators are afraid that our teachers colleges will fail to apply the efficiency elements of this method to the work of preparing teachers, while others are equally afraid that they will apply them. One group fears mounting costs and the other the production of standardized teachers who will tend to teach standardized pupils in a standardized manner in standardized schools supported by a standardized society. In this case, as in so many involving sharp differences of opinion, the wise course is probably a compromise which will attempt to save the good in both and to avoid the dangers.

Another element which has produced this new interest in the preparation of teachers is a result of raising the level of general education to such a point that a "common school education" now in many cases means the completion of a high-school course. More children attend school for more years. More money is spent for schools. Greater efficiency is expected of them, which obviously demands better prepared teachers.

A third element in this list is the unprecedented increase in the number of students attending institutions of higher education since the World War and the resultant increased supply of college-trained men and women for work in the professional and semi-professional fields. This oversupply has increased competition by placing larger numbers of these college graduates into teaching positions.

A fourth element arousing interest in standards of teachers colleges is the result of the increased salaries now paid to teachers. With better salaries more people are not only willing but eager to teach and those who are teaching are less willing to stop. As a result there is a distinct oversupply of teachers in many of our states with no promise of improvement in the near future. The increased supply and the increased competition make this the most logical time imaginable either to lower salaries or to increase standards. Since one or the other of these courses is inevitable it seems fitting that this Association should concern itself with the important problem of seeing that our public school system shall not lose any of its gains and that boards of education facing the alternatives just mentioned will be able to secure for the salaries now being paid teachers with more and better training than ever before.

With this situation facing the teachers colleges, new importance is attached to the standards of this Association. These standards, expressing the best practises of the normal schools and teachers colleges of the country, should be raised whenever there is satisfactory evidence to justify a change or whenever there is enough agreement among the members upon the desirability of a change to warrant it. If standards are changed only under such conditions there is relatively little danger that standards will be prematurely adopted or that any serious injustice will be done to member institutions. The other most common danger of standardization is that standards will be set and that they will remain set beyond the time when they should be changed. Whenever this happens it is easy to see that standards are hindrances to progress rather than aids. Fortunately this danger is not a very real one for the American Association of Teachers Colleges since it has from the beginning adopted the attitude toward its standards that they should be thought of as dynamic and developing instead of static and final.

Your Committee on Standards and Surveys has consistently held that it is best not to formulate a standard unless it can be based upon either the results of a careful study or a general agreement of the members. This policy has left some standards unwritten but it has avoided the disturbing differences of opinion which would certainly have arisen over the application of standards, unsupported either by evidence or practise, to some of these controversial issues.

Considering the fact, referred to at other meetings, that the investigatory work of this Association and of its Committee on Standards and Surveys is done solely on a voluntary basis it would seem that a commendable number of investigations have been made and that the standards of the Association have been very definitely refined and improved in the four years since their tentative adoption in Washington. Furthermore, these standards, during the short period of their existence, have exerted a tremendous uplifting and stimulating influence upon every normal school and teachers college in the country as well as upon an increasing number of colleges and universities, many of whose graduates enter teaching.

While there is justification for satisfaction over the accomplishments of the last few years the real work of standardization remains to be done. The standards of this Association may be said to have just finished their probationary period. Opportunities have been afforded for "trying them out" upon faculties, boards of trustees, state legislatures, and in the building of a list of accredited colleges. Inadequacies have been discovered and while some of them have been remedied others certainly remain.

This year seems to be one of very great significance in the history of this Association; and the widespread interest which has been manifested in the standards is merely an evidence that the presidents and faculties of the normal schools and teachers colleges of the country realize that such factors as the oversupply of teachers, the increasing standards of certification in many states, the reduction in the number of high-school training classes and county normal schools, the better salaries for teachers and the greatly increased teacher-training activities of colleges and universities are all very directly related to the standards of this Association and to their application. Furthermore, the date for the first "tightening up" of the standards given in Standard XIV has been reached, which is another evidence that the probationary period is over.

In the light of all of these factors the Committee on Standards and Surveys has decided this year to confine its recommendations almost entirely to those parts of the standards which were referred to it from the meeting last year. The results of several carefully organized studies bearing directly or indirectly upon the standards are to be presented briefly to you on the several programs but their results have not been formulated for any action by the Association at this meeting.

At the Cleveland meeting last year there were six matters affecting the standards either referred to this committee or left with it for additional study. These questions had to do with the following points:

1. The amount of credit to be allowed for correspondence and extension work
2. The professional preparation of the faculty
3. The method of computing the teaching load of faculty members
4. The proposed changes for the library standards
5. The proposal of standards for health service as a result of cooperative work with the Committee on Standards of the American Association of College Physicians
6. The consideration of possible additions to the standards on admissions in the light of the findings of the Interstate Conference on Common Problems of Teacher Education.

Five of these are to be discussed in the reports on this afternoon's program and will be open for further discussion during the latter part of the afternoon. The only report not directly affecting the present standards, but which undoubtedly will after its completion, is the study on Unit Costs in Teachers Colleges which is being made by H. J. Magee, director of Teacher Training of the New York State Education Department.

Two other items have been called to the attention of this Committee during the year, which the Committee believes should be brought before the members of the Association. No recommendations for changes in the Standards have been prepared but the Committee is presenting them at this time in order to know the wishes of the Association with respect to them.

The first of these is the suggestion that the standards should include a definite item to the effect that formal statements of standards should not prevent any normal school or teachers college from experimentation or from adaptation to the local needs of the areas served. If there is any danger that such a result will come from the refinement of the standards it is the opinion of the Committee that such an item should be included. However, there seems to be small danger at present that such results will follow, since the standards are in almost all cases expressed in terms of desirable minima instead of restricting maxima and since the Committee on Accrediting and

Classification has from the beginning adopted the policy of interpreting the several standards in terms of the conditions and needs peculiar to any institution.

The second of these items has come to the attention of the officers of the Association and the members of this Committee from a number of sources. It has been contended that this Association is the one standardizing organization of the country that is distinctly concerned with the preparation of teachers and that it should therefore accredit all institutions which train teachers. These inquiries and requests for inspection and accrediting have come from colleges with strong departments of education, many of whose graduates are entering the field of teaching, particularly in secondary schools. While the members of the Committee on Standards and Surveys realize that most of the colleges of the country are sending some of their graduates into teaching and some are sending more into that field than into all others combined, yet they do not feel that recommendations on a matter of such importance and with such far-reaching results should be presented for action without, first, a preliminary consideration of the question by the Association and, second, a thorough investigation of the probable results of such a change in policy and membership.

We are, therefore, calling to your attention these two important matters so that you may express your wishes with regard to them when the standards come up for action.

The detailed recommendations for changes in the standards were presented at the first meeting according to the regulations. Except for those involving the questions referred to the Committee at the last meeting, the proposals are nearly all changes in wording for the sake of clearness and do not represent any change in practise or standard.

The Committee on Standards and Surveys wishes at this time to express its appreciation to the presidents of the member-institutions and to the several individuals who have cooperated so constructively in the Committee's attempt to secure accurate information which will assist the Association in the solution of some of its professional problems.

CORRESPONDENCE AND EXTENSION WORK

A REPORT TO THE MEMBERS OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES ON THE QUESTIONS SUBMITTED FOR THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS AND SURVEYS BY E. S. EVENDEN, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

In order to guide the Committee on Standards and Surveys of the American Association of Teachers Colleges in its consideration of Standard III-C, which deals with the amount of credit toward a degree or a diploma which may be secured by correspondence or extension work, a brief set of questions was sent to the members of the Association during the early part of January. These questions asked for certain facts concerning present practises with respect to correspondence and extension courses and also asked for the opinions of the presidents on some of the controversial issues involved in this question.

Replies were received from 154 institutions in 41 states. One hundred thirty-three of these were received in time to be included in the tabulations. Five others answered promptly, but said that as their institutions gave neither correspondence nor extension courses they did not consider their answers would be helpful.

For the purpose of discovering any sectional differences in practises and points of view on the questions asked, the states were divided into four groups:

1. *Eastern*—Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania.
2. *Southern*—Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia.
3. *Central*—Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Wisconsin.
4. *Western*—Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington.

The questions asked and the tabulated answers by sections[1] are given without comment except where necessary to explain some of the answers.

Standard III-C as it is now worded in the standards of the Association is as follows:

> Not more than one-fourth (¼) of any curriculum leading to a degree or a certificate or a diploma in a teachers college or normal school shall be taken in extension classes or by correspondence. (Not more than one-half (½) of this shall be done by correspondence.) These classes shall be conducted by regularly appointed teachers who meet all the qualifications of Standard V, Preparation of the Faculty. No courses shall be offered for credit either in extension or by correspondence which are not also offered as part of the regular residence work. These courses should likewise meet the standards of sequence, prerequisites, etc., set forth in Standard VIII, Organization of the Curriculum.

1. Are you entirely satisfied with the standard as it now stands? (Even if your answer is "yes" please answer the other questions.)

Yes	E— 9	S—19	C—29	W—7	T—64
No	E—13	S—18	C—29	W—7	T—64

2. If the total amount of work credited by correspondence and extension were changed would you want it increased or diminished? By what proportion?

Increased	E— 0	S— 7	C—13	W—4	T—24
Decreased	E—17	S—20	C—31	W—5	T—73

Note: Forty-eight of the 67 who answered question one by "no" answered question two. These 48 answers were distributed as follows:

Increased	E— 0	S—4	C— 6	W—2	T—12
Decreased	E—10	S—9	C—14	W—3	T—36

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[1] Note: The initials E, S, C, W, and T will be used to represent the four groups of states and the Total.

By what proportion *increased?*	
20%	1
33 1/3%	12
50%	7
100%	2
	22

By what proportion *decreased?*	
15%	1
20%	5
33 1/3%	6
50%	20 (a)
66 2/3%	7 (b)
100%	5
	44

(a) In six cases the answer was given "1/8"
(b) In five cases the answer was given "1/12"

3. If in your answer to question two, you recommend any change in the amount of credit allowed, would you want the present maximum amount allowable for *correspondence* work (⅛ of any curriculum) increased, unchanged, or diminished? By what proportion?

Increased	E— 0	S— 7	C—11	W—3	T—21
Unchanged	E— 2	S—11	C—24	W—4	T—41
Diminished	E—15	S—12	C—17	W—5	T—49

By what proportion *increased?*	
33 1/3%	4
50%	2
100%	9
400%	1
	16

By what proportion *diminished?*	
25%	4
33 1/3%	5
50%	11
66 2/3%	1
100%	16
	37

4. If in your answer to question two, you recommend any change in the total amount of credit allowed, would you want the present maximum amount allowable for *extension* work (¼ of any curriculum) increased, unchanged, or diminished?

By what proportion?

Increased	E— 0	S— 7	C—12	W— 2	T—21
Unchanged	E— 8	S—14	C—17	W— 4	T—43
Diminished	E—10	S—10	C—15	W— 4	T—39

By what proportion *increased?*	
20%	1
25%	5
33 1/3%	3
50%	2
100%	4
	15

By what proportion *diminished?*	
16 2/3%	3
20%	1
25%	3
33 1/3%	6
50%	12
66 2/3%	1
87½%	1
100%	1
	28

5. In general, do you consider *correspondence* work to be more, equally, or less desirable for teachers than *resident* class work?

More Desirable	E— 0	S— 0	C— 0	W— 2	T— 2
Equally Desirable	E— 0	S— 5	C— 6	W— 2	T— 13
Less Desirable	E—23	S—31	C—51	W—10	T—115

6. In general, do you consider *correspondence* work to be more, equally, or less desirable for teachers than extension work?

More Desirable	E— 1	S— 1	C— 2	W—3	T— 7
Equally Desirable	E— 1	S— 9	C—15	W—3	T—28
Less Desirable	E—22	S—22	C—38	W—8	T—94

7. Which of the following groups of subjects can be as satisfactorily handled for teachers by correspondence as by regular resident class work?

8. (Same question for extension.)

Correspondence	*E*	*S*	*C*	*W*	*T*	*Extension*	*E*	*S*	*C*	*W*	*T*
None	19	20	29	4	72	None	6	16	22	4	48
Art	0	2	3	0	5	Art	3	8	13	5	29
Commerce	0	1	7	4	12	Commerce	3	7	13	2	25
Education	1	10	15	6	32	Education	10	18	26	8	62
English	1	11	15	10	37	English	11	18	25	8	61
Home Economics	0	3	0	0	3	Home Economics	2	6	5	1	14
Language	0	6	10	2	18	Language	6	15	15	6	42
Manual Arts	0	0	0	0	0	Manual Arts	1	2	4	1	8
Mathematics	1	7	14	9	31	Mathematics	12	15	19	9	55
Music	0	0	1	0	1	Music	3	3	9	6	21
Physical Education	0	1	0	0	1	Physical Education	1	3	7	1	12
Practise Teaching	0	0	0	0	0	Practise Teaching	2	3	5	0	10
Psychology	1	9	14	5	29	Psychology	10	18	22	8	58
Science	0	1	2	0	3	Science	4	5	7	0	16
Social Science	1	11	17	8	37	Social Science	13	18	21	9	61

9. (a) Does your institution offer correspondence courses?

Yes	E— 0	S—24	C—39	W—11	T—74
No	E—23	S—13	C—21	W— 3	T—60

(b) Are correspondence courses offered by regular teachers in the various fields, by special teachers in the extension and correspondence department or by both?

By regular teacher	E— 0	S—18	C—31	W— 9	T—58
By special teacher	E— 0	S— 2	C— 1	W— 0	T— 3
By both	E— 0	S— 2	C— 6	W— 0	T— 8

(c) If correspondence courses are offered by regular faculty members, are such courses considered part of their regular teaching load?

Yes	E— 0	S—14	C—19	W— 2	T—35
No	E— 0	S— 7	C—19	W— 7	T—33

Are they paid an additional salary or honorarium for teaching such courses?

Yes	E— 0	S—10	C—25	W— 8	T—43
No	E— 0	S—11	C—10	W— 1	T—22

10. (a) Does your institution offer extension courses?

Yes	E—17	S—28	C—46	W—11	T—102
No	E— 7	S— 8	C—13	W— 3	T— 31

(b) Are extension courses offered by regular teachers college teachers in the various fields?

Yes	E—15	S—26	C—39	W—11	T—91
No	E— 1	S— 1	C— 1	W— 0	T— 3

By special fulltime teachers in the extension department?

Yes	E— 2	S— 2	C— 6	W— 2	T—12
No	E— 7	S—10	C— 2	W— 0	T—19

By partime teachers not otherwise employed by the teachers college?

Yes	E— 3	S— 1	C— 4	W— 3	T—11
No	E— 6	S—13	C— 2	W— 0	T—21

(c) If extension courses are offered by regular faculty members, are such courses considered part of their regular teaching load?

Yes	E—11	S—17	C—24	W— 6	T—58
No	E— 5	S— 9	C—16	W— 6	T—36

If "yes" are they weighted more than, equal to, or less than regular courses carrying the same amount of credit?

More than	E— 5	S— 0	C— 0	W— 2	T— 7
Equal to	E— 4	S—15	C—19	W— 5	T—43
Less than	E— 2	S— 1	C— 0	W— 0	T— 3

Are regular faculty members paid additional salary or honorarium for extension courses offered in excess of their normal teaching load?

Yes	E— 8	S—16	C—22	W— 8	T—54
No	E— 6	S— 3	C—10	W— 1	T—20

Do you have any regulation regarding the amount of extension work which may be offered by a regular faculty member in excess of his normal teaching load?

Yes	E— 8	S—20	C—27	W— 5	T—60
No	E— 5	S— 3	C— 6	W— 5	T—19

11. (a) If a course is offered by a regular member of your faculty in his regular classroom, but given on Saturday morning in order that local teachers may attend, would you classify the course as "extension"?

Yes	E— 7	S—10	C—30	W— 5	T—52
No	E—15	S—25	C—19	W— 8	T—67

(b) If it were given in the late afternoon or evening for the same reason, would you classify it as "extension"?

Yes	E— 8	S—10	C—29	W— 5	T—52
No	E—13	S—25	C—19	W— 8	T—65

(c) If it were given by the same instructor but in a room in a public school building in the city not officially connected with your institution (as a practise or demonstration school) in order that it might be more convenient to a group of city teachers, would you classify it as "extension"?

Yes	E—19	S—27	C—39	W— 7	T—92
No	E— 3	S— 6	C— 8	W— 3	T—20

(d) If it were given in a city other than the one in which your institution is located, would you classify it as "extension" even if the course were a regular course and the instructor the same person who teaches the course to resident students?

Yes	E—22	S—34	C—47	W—11	T—114
No	E— 0	S— 1	C— 2	W— 1	T— 4

12. Do you have any restrictions upon the courses which may be offered in extension work?

Yes	E—16	S—26	C—39	W—10	T—91
No	E— 4	S— 1	C— 7	W— 5	T—17

Are such courses restricted to elective subjects?

Yes	E— 0	S— 2	C— 1	W— 0	T— 3
No	E—14	S—23	C—37	W—12	T—86

Are they restricted to non-laboratory courses?

Yes	E—10	S—24	C—37	W— 8	T—79
No	E— 2	S— 1	C— 3	W— 1	T— 7

13. Are fees charged for correspondence courses more than, equal to, or less than for the same courses when given in residence?

More than	E— 0	S—15	C—32	W— 6	T—53
Equal to	E— 0	S— 2	C— 3	W— 1	T— 6
Less than	E— 0	S— 0	C— 2	W— 0	T— 2

Are your *correspondence* courses maintained at a loss, no loss, or a profit?

Loss	E— 1	S— 5	C— 8	W— 0	T—14
No loss	E— 0	S—12	C—20	W— 6	T—38
Profit	E— 0	S— 2	C— 5	W— 1	T— 8

Are *correspondence* courses charged with a proportional share of the college's general overhead expenses?

Yes	E— 1	S—10	C— 9	W— 1	T—21
No	E— 0	S— 8	C—24	W— 6	T—38

14. Are fees charged for extension courses more than, equal to, or less than for the same courses when given in residence?

More than	E— 6	S—18	C—29	W— 9	T—62
Equal to	E— 6	S— 4	C— 7	W— 1	T—18
Less than	E— 0	S— 1	C— 2	W— 0	T— 3

Are your extension courses maintained at a loss, no loss, or a profit?

Loss	E— 3	S— 7	C—14	W— 2	T—26
No loss	E— 6	S—15	C—19	W— 7	T—47
Profit	E— 1	S— 1	C— 3	W— 1	T— 6

Are extension courses charged with a proportional share of the college's general overhead expenses?

Yes	E— 7	S— 7	C— 9	W— 3	T—26
No	E— 6	S—14	C—25	W— 5	T—55

15. Does the state university or agricultural college in your state offer correspondence courses especially designed for teachers?

Yes	E— 6	S—26	C—42	W—12	T—98
No	E— 9	S— 7	C— 9	W— 0	T—25

What is the maximum credit which these institutions allow toward a degree for correspondence work?

1/20 or 6 semester hours	2	3/8 or 45 semester hours	1
1/8 or 15 semester hours	3	1/2 or 60 semester hours	18
1/4 or 30 semester hours	10		
1/3 or 40 semester hours	4	Don't know	25

16. Does the state university or agricultural college in your state offer extension courses especially designed for teachers?

Yes	E—10	S—26	C—43	W—14	T—93
No	E— 0	S— 3	C— 6	W— 1	T—10

What is the maximum credit which these institutions allow toward a degree for extension work?

1/20 or 6 semester hours	1	3/8 or 45 semester hours	1
1/4 or 30 semester hours	16	1/2 or 60 semester hours	15
1/3 or 40 semester hours	4	Don't know	25

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES IS INDEBTED TO W. S. BITTNER, SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY EXTENSION ASSOCIATION, FOR THE STANDARDS OF THAT ASSOCIATION ON EXTENSION COURSES AND FOR THE STATEMENT OF THE LIMITATIONS ON EXTENSION CREDITS IN THE LISTED UNIVERSITIES.

Standards, National University Extension Association

The following rules relative to Extension Credit Courses were adopted at the Lawrence, Kansas, meeting of the National University Extension Association, April 27, 1928:

1. *Character and Content of Extension Credit Courses:* Whether or not such courses have counterparts in residence, they shall be equivalent to residence courses of the same level. They shall be approved by the head of the department directly concerned, or such other authorities as are provided for by the rules of the institution. The titles, if any, and numbers of these courses shall appear in the proper place in the general announcement or other official bulletin of the University.

2. *Admission to Extension Credit Courses:* Students may be admitted to such courses, provided they satisfy the proper official that they are prepared to pursue the course with profit, and provided they pay the prescribed fee.

3. *Teaching Hours in Extension Class Courses:* In such courses there shall be the same number of clock hours of class instruction as in similar courses in residence.

4. *Examinations:* No student shall be given credit for an extension credit course until he has passed a supervised examination or other appropriate test on the ground covered.

5. *Extension Instructors:* Instructors in extension credit courses shall be members of the regular University faculty, or shall be appointed as non-resident members of the faculty in accordance with the rules governing such appointments in the various institutions concerned, their names to appear in the appropriate university announcement.

6. *Credit Students:* Those who pursue extension credit courses and who meet all the requirements laid down shall be given the same amount of credit as they would receive for corresponding courses conducted in residence.

7. *Recording and Reporting of Credit:* In recording and transferring credits earned through extension, the records should show that such courses were taken by extension. It should be specified also whether such credits were earned through class instruction or correspondence study.

Limitations on Extension Credits

Compiled from replies of 19 members of the National University Extension Association December, 1929. Most of the remaining (23) members of the Association have had a limitation rule of one-fourth the total or have had no definite numerical limitation. Restrictions such as the following apply in nearly all cases: Senior residence, prerequisites, departmental regulations, limited offerings. Arbitrary numerical limitations are perhaps in the main unnecessary because of the fact that the great majority of correspondence students earn only three or four units of credit, that very few students complete as much as one-fourth or more of the curriculum by home study, and that exceptional cases are usually mature students of peculiar merit in special circumstances.

Amount of Extension Work Accepted Toward a Degree

University of Arizona—60 units.

University of Arkansas—The only limit to amount of correspondence courses taken to count toward a degree was that the work of the senior year has to be done in residence. Now limited to one-fourth.

University of California—Special limitations, prerequisites, senior residence.

University of Chicago—One-half of work required for degree.

Indiana University—60 hours.

University of Iowa—60 hours.

University of Kansas—The College of Liberal Arts accepted extension credits to the amount of one-half of the work required for the Bachelor's degree; no other schools of the University had allowed more than 30 hours of extension credit to count toward a degree. Now limited to 30 hours.

University of Missouri—40 hours.

University of Kentucky—60 hours.

University of Minnesota—60 of 124.

University of Nebraska—One-half of work required for degree.

University of North Carolina—45 hours.

University of Oklahoma—40 hours.

University of Oregon—62 hours.
University of Texas—60 hours.
University of Utah—One-half of total.
University of Washington—One-half of work required for degree.
Washington State College—One-half of total.
University of Wisconsin—Two years.

THE STANDARDIZATION OF HEALTH SERVICE IN TEACHERS COLLEGES AND NORMAL SCHOOLS

A. O. DEWEESE, M. D., KENT STATE COLLEGE, KENT, OHIO

Health service in educational institutions is just now emerging from the experimental stage. In this stage each unit has experimented with the problem in its own way and in accordance with its own peculiar limitations and environment. This, of course, has been most fortunate. It meant that hundreds of experimental units were located throughout the country—all of which discovered and proved the educational value or fallacy of various theories and tendencies in health service. The wholesale activity of practical experimentation of these many units is one of the factors making possible the rapid progress of the work.

Insofar as the general plan and major objectives are concerned, health service has passed through its experimental stage. Like all other educational movements and human service activities, it must now meet the problem of standardization. One of the most important services that the American Association of Teachers Colleges can render the cause is to direct now a part of its energy and resources toward this problem. It needs careful study and direction.

Many teacher-training institutions with limited resources and student body are just now introducing health service; others are attempting to organize it upon a more efficient basis. Those who are connected with such institutions know that most every mail brings questionnaires and requests for information from those who are at sea as to just what methods to follow in the installation or organization of their health service.

Common practise, research, and general publication have given to this group two definite ideas of standards to be attained: First, that it should consist of medical and physical examination of the student body; second, that student health service should consist of (1) health instruction, (2) personal service, including medical and physical examination, care of the sick, and medical and health consultation, (3) direction of health-protecting and health-giving conditions in the school-society, including sanitation, recreational, and corrective physical activities and the community hygiene of college life. This has been the simplest and most practical suggestion of the majority of the work and publications finding their way to the desk of the college administrators. Forsythe and Sundwall, University of Michigan, Wood of Columbia, Report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, Health Trends in Secondary Education, the American

Child Hygiene Association, with many other reports and journal publications, have made up this fund of information.

A study of the present status of student health service—What the colleges have done with this general ideal of student health service is indicated in a recent study. One hundred teachers colleges were selected at random from the United States Educational Directory as representative of various sections of the United States. From this selection it was possible to make a fairly reliable study of sixty-five different schools in thirty-five different states.

Health examinations—It was found that seventy-six percent of these institutions require a complete health examination on entrance. Only twelve do not require it, but six percent of the institutions give a partial examination, that is, only nine fail to give a complete or partial examination. A report by Mock, *et al.,* in 1924 on 131 colleges and universities shows a complete examination in 64 percent plus of the schools studied.

It is obvious that the value of the health examination depends in a measure upon follow-up and subsequent examinations. Eighty-two percent of the institutions follow up the entrance examinations with such subsequent examinations as may be indicated.

Training and equipment of the individual who gives the health examination—The personal value to be derived by the student from such a health examination is obviously the same as it would be for any other individual. In addition, however, this health examination of the student has an added educational value. He must be informed and interested in the value of such an examination from a public health service standpoint. In his case, then, it is essential that the examination be done by one who makes a specialty of this work and understands its educational background. That the institutions are meeting this problem is shown by the fact that in sixty-two percent of the cases the examination is given by the college physician; by local physicians in twelve percent; by the family physician in two percent; and by the physical education department in four percent of the cases studied.

Health advice and medical consultation—Competent medical and health advice for students in college training is an important educational factor, and one that deserves more attention on the part of our medical societies and organizations. Numerous reports of absurdities have been produced, such as Christian Scientists in charge of health supervision, chiropractors in physical education departments, and cultists in charge of hygiene instruction.

In the study of sixty-five representative institutions, eighteen percent made no provision for medical and health advice; in thirty percent some advice was given by the college physician; in twenty-four percent some advice was given by the college physician and school nurse; in eight percent none except by the nurse; in eight percent some advice was given by the examining physician and physical education teacher; in six percent by the physical education teacher and local physicians; and in two percent by the nutrition department.

Regular hours needed for medical consultation and advice—Two things are obvious. First, the casual medical and health advice given as indicated in most cases above would be very inefficient. Second, if this service is to be worthwhile, regular hours must be provided for consultation with the student. Colleges have not as yet met this condition. Only fifty-three percent of the institutions studied have regular hours for consultation. The number of hours given to such service in the schools providing it ranges from one hour to forty hours per week with an average of eight and one-half hours per week.

The most unsatisfactory arrangement from the standpoint of those responsible for its administration seem to be those cases in which students called at the regular office of some local physician. The service in such cases was little used and was farthest from a helpful educational program.

A partime physician having regular hours at the college office was fairly satisfactory only in those cases in which a nurse or other director had charge of the office fulltime. The students apparently grew to consider the service as a part of the educational program and a part of the campus activities.

The most satisfactory arrangement was in those cases in which the physician gave all of his time to the college. In most cases such a physician did some teaching and became the director of all health activities.

In all cases the value of the service appeared to depend upon the training and aptitude of the physician for health education activities. There is, after all, quite a difference between a medical examination and a health examination. Although the findings and the technic are the same, the standpoint from which they are presented, used, and studied with young people must be materially different.

Office equipment—The inability of college administrators to recognize the necessity of scientific equipment for their student health service would be humorous if it were not so pathetic. In this study it appeared that they did not realize that the physician could not feel the pulse and look at the tongue of the student and get an accurate picture of his physical condition. College administrators, of course, know that the standards and rating of their biology, physics, and chemistry departments are determined by their equipment and laboratory facilities as much as by the training and efficiency of their instructors. On the whole they have yet to learn that the efficiency and educational value of their health service, like any other science, depends upon scientific apparatus.

Corrections of remediable health defects—It is generally assumed that the responsibility for correction of remediable defects rests with the student. In the study made, no provisions for the correction of remediable defects were made by forty-two percent of the schools; none except through physical education in thirty-two percent; none except what could be done by the college physician in twelve percent. Two schools were associated with a medical and dental department so that they had clinical services and one school charged a health fee to cover the corrections. These corrections were made outside the school. Such a procedure as the last would seem to be unfair to the student who had paid for his correction before entering school.

The tendency to exclude students from college until corrections of remediable defects are made—It is obvious that the student health service will fall short of giving its best service in promoting a healthier and more physically fit body of teacher-training graduates unless some provisions are made to stimulate the student to improve his physical condition. That our colleges are attacking this problem is shown in this study. Students are excluded from college or denied diplomas until corrections of remediable defects are made in seventy percent of the cases; in six percent, students are not admitted with defects, so that in seventy-six percent of cases students are not permitted to pursue college training until remediable defects are removed. This tendency is one of the most hopeful signs found in this study. Mock, in his study of 1924, reports fifty-five percent of the schools rejecting students until physical defects are corrected.

Health condition and health attitude a factor in college records—If teacher-training graduates are to be efficient leaders in public health and health education, they must be health minded. That they are health minded will be shown throughout their training career in their attitude and in their conduct toward scientific health factors. It is evident that the health condition and health attitude of the student is a most vital factor in his efficiency and service rendered the public. This factor then should be shown in his final grades and school records. This is done in only thirty-six percent of the schools studied.

Required course in science—One of the most discouraging things brought out in this study was the dearth of the basic sciences as required courses. It is hard to see how a college graduate could have a scientific attitude toward health and health education, or toward anything else unless he has some knowledge of the basic sciences. The number of semester hours required ranged from three to thirty-two hours with an average of ten semester hours.

Organization, administration, and finance—The organization and form of administration varies widely. This is attributable to various local conditions and the interest of various pre-existing departments in student health work. In some cases, the deans of men and women were interested in securing the help of a nurse or physician in the administration of their work. In others the needs of the physical education department brought about the help and aid of outside physicians. In others it developed as an extension of the departments of physiology and hygiene or biology, or nutrition work in the department of home economics. In other schools a school physician and nurse have been added for the care of student illness leaving the work of formal instruction a responsibility of one or more teaching departments. This has made inevitable a lack of uniformity and coordination of student health activities, resulting in many cases in duplication and inefficiency.

Some schools have attempted to rectify this by forming a committee or board of the various departments interested to control or administer the student health activities. This as a rule has not been satisfactory. As in the history of most organizations administered by boards or committees, soon it is found necessary to select individual directors to carry out the details and to be responsible to the governing head.

Forsythe, in Bulletin 11, University of Michigan, Health Service in American Colleges and Universities, 1926, observes:

> Without attempting to discuss all of the variations in organization to fit local and particular situations, a statement of the policy which seems to be gaining, and to me seems most logical, will be discussed. Storey, in directing the work of the Interdepartmental Social Hygiene Board, was experienced in student work, and very properly promoted coordination, cooperation, and often combinations of several allied activities. In writing on this phase of student health work, Storey and Raycroft express the ideas which have guided recent organizations by emphasis upon the necessity of coordination of physical education, instruction in hygiene and clinical work of medical examination, and the care of the sick. Sundwall early expressed the need for a pooling of efforts by a number of college agencies in making the most of student health work.
>
> Whatever the local conditions, and the established positions or department which might lose identity, the best interest of student health will generally be served by a broad, inclusive, and generally independent organization of the work. The discussion of the problem previously designates three objectives which can be attained best by unified or cooperative administration of the forces which affect the physical welfare, health information, and living habits of future citizens. The same unified control can best determine the many things which can be learned from such work.

The value of having at least a portion of the staff identified with student health work on a fulltime basis has been generally recognized.

The director should devote his entire time to the general problem, and the physician should be on fulltime, or employed upon a basis which will insure regular, dependable, and interested service.

The professorial status of the head of the first department of physical education and hygiene, established at Amherst in 1859, has been generally followed for those in similar work, particularly when instruction is included in his duties. It seems desirable to organize the staff on faculty lines, and regard its work as educational, even though quite confined to clinical care of students.

Administration—Obviously, if the student health service is to function, there must be efficient administration of (1) health instruction; (2) personal service, including medical examinations, care of the sick, and medical and health consultation; (3) direction of health-protecting and health-giving conditions in the school society. This includes sanitation, recreational physical activities, and community hygiene of the college life. To function effectively over any period of time, these must be administered by one director responsible to the president as the head of any other department.

Infirmary and hospital care—The value of early hospitalization in student health care is obvious. It is a most important unit in a complete health service program. Not only is it essential from a public health standpoint in order to provide isolation in disease prevention and from a medical standpoint to safeguard the interest of the patient, but it is more essential because of the facilities it offers in health education and training for prospective citizens.

The teacher-training institutions are cognizant of this fact. With the exception of some of the small colleges located in cities whose student body mainly lives at home, and those in close relations with other hospital service, the majority of the schools maintain infirmary service. This ranges from a separate hospital building on the campus to a section of a dormitory. A few infirmary beds in an isolated section of a dormitory comprise the facilities offered by most schools. Ten beds per thousand students is the average, although it is generally conceded that 14 beds per thousand students is needed. Generally the infirmary is for medical cases only, and free service ranges between three days to two weeks with a charge for longer service. There is much to be said for the incorporation of the infirmary in the wing of a dormitory in the small colleges provided it is properly arranged and properly equipped. It greatly reduces the overhead expense. The heating, janitor and maid service, kitchen and food supply is in most cases more economically administered.

Rejections from physical and health examination—As has been shown, students are either not allowed to enter with defects or are excluded from teacher-training courses or denied teacher-training diplomas until corrections of remediable defects are made in 76 percent of the schools studied. We were unable to find any school with definitely set-up criteria for rejection. One reported as its standard that set by reputable insurance companies for an "A" grade rating. The judgment of the school physician weighing and studying each case as an individual case seems to be the prevailing custom, and this perhaps is as it should be.

The Connecticut State Board of Education set up a detailed standard of entrance for its state normal schools some years ago. From reports it seems to work very successfully.

Conclusions and Recommendations

A review of the present status of student health service in teacher-training institutions leads us to believe that standardization is now a major problem which must be carefully and scientifically studied. The superior accomplishment and results of individual experimentation of various units should be organized for the guidance and measurements of the educational activities in student health service.

There is grave danger of over-standardization. An applied science as new as student health service has many detail problems yet to solve and much experimentation and research must yet be done. However, we should be able by now to determine the efficiency and educational merit of the general principles underlying student health service. It will perhaps be years before there can be any general agreements upon many details and by that time other details will have arisen upon which there can be no general agreement.

Basis of organization—The student health service of any educational institution should be organized upon the three following assumptions:

1. That educationally it is now generally recognized that health is a fundamental factor in training and preparation for citizenship since health materially determines endurance, disposition, and attitude which vitally affect happiness and efficiency.

2. That in training and preparation for citizenship the school is as much responsible for the preservation and protection of the student's health and the development of his physical efficiency and wellbeing as it is for the guidance and training of his mental and cultural attainments.

3. That as a potential leader of society, it is of importance that the student be health minded and have a scientific attitude and equipment to aid him in meeting the problems of personal, community, and public health.

Basis of recommendations—In considering standards in student health service in teachers colleges, we should keep in mind the following factors:

1. The majority of the smaller colleges in America are limited in both finances and enrolment.

2. The present status of student health service in these institutions.

3. The needs and demands of the service as viewed from modern scientific thought and educational tendencies.

4. The supreme importance of an efficient plan of administration. *A poor student health service with an efficient plan of administration can soon develop into an efficient service. An excellent student health service with an impossible plan of administration must soon deteriorate.*

Recommendations—With these factors in mind, we recommend the following points as a basis for standardization:

1. That student health service be administered by a director responsible to the president and on the same status with the heads or directors of other departments and that it include: (1) instruction in health education; (2) personal service, including medical and physical examination, care of the sick, and medical and health consultation; (3) direction of health-protecting and health-giving conditions in the school society, including sanitation, recreational and corrective physical activities, and the community hygiene of the college life.

2. That the faculty list include at least one fulltime physician, specially trained for his work and paid from the same budget and in the same manner as other members of the college staff.

3. That the office of the college physician and other departments of student health service be provided with modern, scientific equipment, and clerical and professional assistance comparable with other administrative and scientific departments of the college.

4. That the services of fulltime or partime specialists in mental hygiene, dental hygiene, et cetera, be determined by the resources in enrolment and finances.

5. That adequate provision be made for the hospitalization or infirmary care of the sick.

6. That regular clinic hours be provided by the student health service for health advice, dispensary treatment, and consultation with the students.

7. That along with the subjectmatter and general ability entrance tests administered, a complete medical and health examination administered or supervised by some qualified member of the institution be required, the detailed findings of this examination to become a part of the student's entrance records and considered in the action upon his application.

8. That students with correctable or remediable defects either be excluded from entrance or teacher-training diplomas until such corrections are made.

9. That since a scientific attitude toward life in general and health in particular cannot be developed without some scientific background, the basic sciences should be included in the general subjectmatter required.

10. That at least nine semester hours be required in health education to include three semester hours of a combination of applied anatomy, physiology, bacteriology, three term hours of school health problems, and three term hours of methods in child hygiene and health education.

11. That proper facilities for practise teaching and observation in health education be provided in a training school or in a public school system.

THE COMPUTATION OF TEACHING LOADS IN TEACHERS COLLEGES

H. L. DONOVAN, PRESIDENT, EASTERN KENTUCKY STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, RICHMOND, KY.

The purpose of this study is to picture practise relative to the teaching load in the institutions which hold membership in our Association. No attempt has been made to find out scientifically what should be the service load of a teacher. The theoretical aspects of this problem have not interested us in the investigation which we have made at this time. We have simply been seeking information that we might present to you the facts regarding present practise.

Those who are interested in obtaining further information on this problem will find it in McMullen's "The Service Load in Teacher-Training Institutions of the United States." This is by far the most profound investigation of the problem which has been made in this country. We commend it to you for your consideration in dealing with the teacher's load.

The questionnaire which each member of this Association received elicited comment ranging from scorn that expressed mild contempt for such a survey to praise that amounted to laudation. For example, one president commented: "Now, for my own thoughts about this, I don't think there is enough value to be gained from it (the present study) to justify the work you have to do on it. If we could get the Association to assign topics that do have value—fundamental ones—of which there are many, instead of superficial ones such as this, we might hope to get somewhere." From another president, we received this encouragement: "Power to your good right arm in this and other things. This interpretation (sixteen clock hours per week or the equivalent means 16x60 divided by the length of the class period employed) seems impossible. The liberal arts colleges would not think of such an interpretation. It is this kind of thing that makes teachers colleges 'queer'."

The questionnaire, which is to be found on the last page, was sent to 173 teacher-training institutions who hold membership in our Association. One hundred thirty-four, or 77 percent, replied in time to have the responses tabulated. Eleven others came in after the tabulation was made, but a cursory review of these replies shows that they would not change materially the results presented in this paper. At the same time, we sent a similar questionnaire to 75 liberal arts colleges holding membership in the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. That Association has a standard relative to the teaching load somewhat similar to, but not exactly like, the one adopted by this Association. Fifty-one institutions of the Southern Association or 68 percent replied to the questionnaire. These data were gathered for the purpose of having comparative information from the two groups of colleges.

From these data it is apparent that Standard VI—Teaching Load of Faculty—admits of several interpretations. There is probably as great a variation in practise among the teachers colleges with respect to this problem as there would be if we did not have any standard at all. The Committee has, therefore, attempted to prepare a standard which can be more easily interpreted. It is as follows:

> The following teaching loads shall be the maximum for a teachers college faculty: sixteen recitation hours per week, or the equivalent. Equivalence shall be based upon the ratio of one class period to one and one-half class periods in shop, laboratory work, and physical education.

INFORMATION RELATIVE TO STANDARD VI FOR THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS AND SURVEYS OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES

The standard reads as follows:

VI. Teaching Load of Faculty

The following teaching loads shall be the maximum for a teachers college faculty: 16 clock hours per week, or the equivalent. Equivalence shall be based upon the ratio of one class period to one and one-half class periods in shop and laboratory work, one to one and one-quarter in physical education, and one to three-quarters in English composition.

TABULATION OF DATA FROM TEACHERS COLLEGES

Institutions to which questionnaires were sent—173
Institutions reporting—134
Percent of institutions responding—77.46

1. Length of class periods stated in minutes of actual teaching:													
Minutes of actual teaching	43	45	50	52	53	55	60						Total
Number of institutions	1	4	82	1	3	41	1						133
Percent of institutions	.75	3	61.65	.75	2.25	30.82	.75						100
2. (a) Normal load of teachers:													
Periods per week	8	10	12	13	13½	14	15	16	17	20			
Number of institutions	1	1	4	1	1	12	35	51	4	3			113
Percent of institutions	.88	.88	3.53	.88	.88	10.61	30.98	45.13	3.53	2.65			100
(b) Minimum load for a fulltime staff member:													
Periods per week	3	4	5	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
Number of institutions	1	2	1	4	1	7	2	51	4	11	10	12	106
Percent of institutions	.94	1.88	.94	3.77	.94	6.60	1.88	48.11	3.77	10.37	9.4	11.3	100
(c) Maximum load for a fulltime staff member:													
Periods per week	8	15	16	17	18	19	20	22	25				
Number of institutions	1	9	46	3	32	5	12	1	2				111
Percent of institutions	.90	8.10	41.44	2.70	28.82	4.50	10.81	.90	1.80				100
3. (a) Ratio of regular period to shop and laboratory period:	1 to 1	3 to 4	1 to 1 1/3	1 to 1½	1 to 2								
Number of institutions	4	1	1	72	49								127
Percent of institutions	3.14	.78	.78	56.69	38.58								100
(b) Ratio of regular period to physical education period:	1 to 1	1 to 1¼	1 to 1 1/3	1 to 1½	1 to 2	1 to 3							
Number of institutions	13	48	1	60	2	2							126
Percent of institutions	10.31	38.09	.79	47.61	1.58	1.58							100
(c) Ratio of regular period to English composition period:	1 to ¾	1 to 1											
Number of institutions	65	58											123
Percent of institutions	52.84	47.15											100
4. Interpretation of clock hour:	Clock hour—teaching period	Clock hour—60 min. of actual teaching											
Number of institutions	104	25											129
Percent of institutions	80.62	19.37											100

TABULATION OF DATA FROM SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION COLLEGES

Institutions to which questionnaires were sent—75
Institutions reporting—51
Percent of institutions reporting—68

1. Length of class periods stated in minutes of actual teaching:									
Minutes of actual teaching	50	53	55	60	120				Total
Number of institutions	12	1	30	6	1				50
Percent of institutions	24	2	60	12	2				100
2. (a) Normal load of teachers:	11	12	13	14	15	16			
Number of institutions	1	7	2	1	30	3			44
Percent of institutions	2.27	15.9	4.54	2.27	68.18	6.81			100
(b) Minimum load for a fulltime teacher:	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
Number of institutions	2	6	3	1	21	1	1	4	39
Percent of institutions	5.12	15.38	7.69	2.56	53.84	2.56	2.56	10.25	100
(c) Maximum load for a fulltime teacher:	12	13	14	15	16	17	18		
Number of institutions	1		2	13	9	2	15		42
Percent of institutions	2.38		4.76	30.95	21.42	4.76	35.71		100
3. (a) Ratio of regular period to shop and laboratory period:	1 to 1	1 to 1½	1 to 2	1 to 3					
Number of institutions	2	2	42	1					47
Percent of instructions	4.25	4.25	89.36	2.12					100
(b) Ratio of regular period to physical education period:	1 to 1	1 to 1½	1 to 2	1 to 3					
Number of institutions	9	10	9	4					32
Percent of institutions	28.12	31.25	28.12	12.50					100
(c) Ratio of regular period to English composition period:	1 to 1½	1 to 2/3	1 to ¾	1 to 1					
Number of institutions	1	1	3	29					34
Percent of institutions	2.94	2.94	8.82	85.29					100
4. Interpretation of clock hour	Clock hour—teaching period	Clock hour—60 min. of actua lteaching							
Number of institutions	44	3							47
Percent of institutions	93.61	6.38							100

1. What is the length of the class period in your institution? (Give the actual teaching time excluding the intermission period between classes.)
   Underscore answer: 40 — 50 — 55 — 60 Minutes
2. How many such periods do you assign instructors who teach subjects where no laboratory work is involved?
   (a) Normal or average load ( )
   Give (b) Minimum load for fulltime staff member ( )
   (c) Maximum load for fulltime staff member ( )
3. Check the statements below to indicate the practise in your institution with respect to ratio of a regular class period to shop and laboratory work, physical education, and English composition:
   A. Ratio of regular period to shop and laboratory period
   ( ) a. One to one ( ) b. One to one and one-half ( ) c. One to two
   B. Ratio of regular period to physical education period
   ( ) a. One to one ( ) b. One to one and one-quarter ( ) c. One to one and one-half
   C. Ratio of regular period to English composition period
   ( ) a. One to three-fourths ( ) b. One to one
4. Check the statement below that most nearly corresponds to the practise in your institution with respect to this standard:
   ( ) a. "Sixteen clock hours per week, or the equivalent" means 16 periods or recitations per week of 45, 50, or more minutes.
   ( ) b. "Sixteen clock hours per week, or the equivalent" means 16x60 divided by the length of the class period employed. Example 16 x 60 = 960 minutes. 960 ÷ 50 = 19. If this interpretation is placed on the standard, an instructor may be assigned 19 periods or recitations where the class period is 50 minutes in length.
5. If you have a different interpretation of this standard, please turn over the page and write it.

HEALTH SERVICE IN TEACHERS COLLEGES

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Health has long been recognized as a major objective in education. This theory gradually found expression in actual practise in public schools and in schools of teacher preparation. Good practise is by no means universal in either case but the health education movement has gained enough momentum to justify positive action by the American Association of Teachers Colleges in connection with its development of standards.

Members and representatives of our Committee on Accrediting and Classification in applying present standards during the inspectional work of the last two years have felt that a serious shortage exists in our standards with respect to health service. This Committee voted at the Boston meeting in 1928 to refer the matter to the Committee on Standards and Surveys. This latter Committee brought the question to the attention of the Association at the Cleveland meeting in 1929 and was instructed to study the problem and make recommendations regarding desirable standards at the 1930 meeting.

The American Association of College Physicians has given this matter considerable attention. Dr. A. O. DeWeese of the Kent State College at

Kent, Ohio, has made a study of the problem for that organization. We are indebted to him and the American Association of College Physicians for the report which is in your hands. His report has enabled your Committee on Standards and Surveys to formulate proposed standards for student health service. These proposals are incorporated in the Committee's report on suggested changes in present standards.

To focus attention on the points involved in the proposed standards on student health service I shall read them at this time.

Student Health Service and Living Conditions

A. Student Health Service

1. Health Protection

   Provision shall be made, by means of suitable organization, for the following phases of student health service: (a) physical examinations, (b) consultations on health matters and dispensary treatments, (c) correction of remediable defects, and (d) hospitalization or infirmary care. (This type of service (d) may be provided through cooperative arrangements with independent hospitals.)

   The student health protection services shall be rendered by specially qualified physicians, nurses, dental hygienists, psychiatrists, and others on such basis and in such manner as local conditions require. Offices and rooms of the health protection (or service) department or organization shall be equipped with modern scientific apparatus and provision shall be made for essential clerical services.

2. Health Education

   Student health service logically includes health education (teaching health habits), hence, suitable courses in health education shall be offered and provisions made in the training school department for observation and practise teaching in health education.

3. Physical Recreation

   Facilities shall be provided for in-door and out-door recreation involving desirable physical activities.

Your Committee on Standards and Surveys makes these comparatively innocuous proposals for two reasons: (1) it seems to be the policy of the Association to incorporate new standards in such form that they will be acceptable to a majority of institutions concerned and (2) there is not sufficient evidence available to justify more definite standards than these proposed.

In connection with the first reason it should be stated that the Committee believes it is better to call attention in the standards to the important points in student health service than to avoid the issue entirely. (There is ample precedent for this position in many sections of the present standards.) Furthermore, local conditions vary so greatly from school to school that it is dangerous to hazard a guess in relation to more definite standards than these proposed that would be feasible (or acceptable at present).

With reference to the second reason it should be remembered that the Committee on Standards and Surveys is essentially a service committee and is therefore under obligation to the Association to make only those recommendations that seem justified in the light of known facts. The Committee members have no right to impose their unsupported opinion on the Association in their proposals. Each member of the Committee, it may be said safely, has his ideals for an adequate student health service, and these ideals probably are very similar to those held by all health enthusiasts. In contrast with our individual sets of standards these proposals leave much to be desired. It is hoped, however, that the Committee will be authorized to make further studies looking to a revision of the standards from time to time. Such action would be consonant with the history of the development of our present standards.

On good authority the proposed standards recognize a three-fold classification of student health service—health protection, health education, and physical recreation. No one will deny that the success of a program of student health service depends upon leadership. Some one in the teachers college should be responsible for organizing and administering the programs. The health teacher, the physical education teacher, the college physician, the college nurse, the dental hygienist, the psychiatrist, the counsellor, the athletic coach—all these and others are interested in the program. Who can say now which one shall be held administratively responsible for the whole program? Or who can say what particular form of organization is best for the conduct of the various activities in the program? It seems, in view of our present information, that conditions in individual colleges will determine who shall be held responsible and what form of organization shall be adopted.

What is possible in one college may be quite impossible in another. It is important, however, to recognize the need of a responsible officer to head the work and of some organization to carry out definite plans.

It is believed by many that physical fitness should be a part of admission requirements. What is physical fitness? Right now, it is difficult, if not impossible, to find two authorities (if there be such) to agree on a definition of the term, to say nothing of the difficulty of formulating a generally acceptable definition. Could such a requirement, assuming definition of physical fitness as possible, be administered? How long would it take a college physician to examine an entering class of four hundred students? Could this be done during the registration period? Obviously, no. Could it be done by the college physician prior to the registration period? It is very doubtful. Could it be done by family physicians and reported in some regular form to the college? Possibly, but experience does not arouse any enthusiasm for this plan. How can physical fitness in any definite medical sense be incorporated in admission requirements? Frankly, no one knows now a plan that can be applied to all teachers colleges. The best that can be done at present is to call attention to the importance of physical examinations and suggest that they be given by competent medical examiners and their assistants as early as possible in the college career of students and as often as possible during their college life so that the unfit may be eliminated as students or as teachers after graduation.

Physical examination is a precursor of the next two points—consultation on health matters and dispensary treatments, and correction of remediable defects.

That there should be available at stated times medical service for individual students we may easily agree. Is it necessary that private advice be given by a fulltime college physician, or can this service be rendered by partime service? The number of students in a given college will determine the extent of the need and the available financial resources will determine the feasibility of any plan. Can the college nurse function in this phase of student health service? Undoubtedly, yes, in many cases. To what extent, then, can the college nurse supplement the services of a physician? There is no evidence at hand to justify a positive answer. Hence, the proposed standard begins and ends by requiring some plan on the part of the teachers college authorities to meet the needs of individual students for medical advice and treatment.

Many physical defects lend themselves to remedial treatment. Candidates for admission or graduation who are mentally competent and otherwise satisfactory as prospective teachers should not be barred from the profession because of bodily defects that are correctable. Your Committee recognizes these points but is not prepared this year to suggest definite standards regarding personnel organization or equipment to provide this type of student health service. It is being well done no doubt in some teachers colleges but a detailed investigation of the practises related to this problem is needed before further recommendations can be made.

Hospitalization or infirmary care is essential but the exact extent of this service is a moot question. Again local conditions affect the solution of the problem. In one college it is much more economical to utilize the resources of a nearby hospital than it would be to maintain its own hospital or infirmary unit; in another college philanthropic friends provide free hospital service. Should we require each college to provide its own facilities for this type of service when there are fully acceptable or even superior facilities available elsewhere? Your committee thought not and therefore specified in the proposed standards only that some provision be made for hospitalization and infirmary care and even suggests that cooperative arrangements with independent hospitals should be acceptable. It may be discovered during the ensuing year or later what is both desirable and practicable in connection with this item of the proposed standards.

Several special staff members for a student health service unit have been suggested earlier. What ones shall be selected and whether their services shall be partime or fulltime is at present a matter of opinion. The proposals, therefore, do not embody any rigid requirements. Again the needs and finances of a given teachers college will determine the nature and size of the health service staff and the minimum time limits on these services.

Office space and equipment, examination rooms, clinical equipment, and clerical services are essential but specific standards on these points rest on future investigations. It seems useless at present to attempt to guess at standards which would serve as exact measurements in respect to these matters.

There is so much uncertainty regarding the content and organization of health courses that your Committee felt compelled to stop at merely calling attention to the matter of health education and to insist in the proposed standards on some provision for instruction in health education and for observation and practise teaching in the training school department. Doubtless this work will deal with certain large aspects of health education such as personal hygiene, community hygiene, nutrition, and socalled physical education. Clarification in this field is needed before more exact requirements can be proposed.

Lastly, there is one phase of student health service that is based primarily on physical recreation. Recreational activities should of course be educational. Muscular activity is desirable in different form and degree for different individuals. It seems reasonable to expect each college to provide for these individual differences and for varying conditions of weather and kinds of recreation. Hence your Committee makes a general proposal for indoor and outdoor facilities to meet physical recreational needs.

The proposed standards clearly raise the age-old issue between idealism and expediency, and expediency seems to have the better of the argument in this case at present. It is equally clear on the other hand that the proposals regarding student health service provide an opportunity for launching a movement that is sorely needed in our teachers colleges and normal schools and it is sincerely hoped that the American Association of Teachers Colleges will go on record in favor of student health service, by incorporating these proposals of the Committee on Standards and Surveys, or some modification of them, as a part of their standards effective as of September, 1930, and that further studies looking to a refinement of the accepted standards will be encouraged and authorized.

CREDIT ADMINISTRATION IN TEACHERS COLLEGES

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This association has given much attention to the development of standards for teachers colleges. These standards properly take into account financial support, enrolment, training of faculty members, curriculums, buildings and equipment, library facilities, training school facilities, and other important factors. You have considered the factors usually taken into account by standardizing agencies. Such agencies have not attempted to standardize procedures, or policies, or the work of an office. It is desirable that a maximum of freedom be left to the individual institution in working out its own policies governing admissions and curriculums.

Credit administration is a process by which the policies of the institution regarding admissions and requirements for degrees are enforced. A low standard of credit administration may vitiate in large measure the standards which you have set up. Each institution is a law unto itself in matters affecting credits. There are few principles or rules of procedure in this field which are commonly agreed on, or generally applied. For example, what answers would you give to the following problems:

1. What credit may properly be allowed toward a curriculum leading to the bachelor's degree for secondary school work completed in excess of the fifteen units required for graduation from an accredited high school?
2. What credit may properly be allowed toward a curriculum leading to the bachelor's degree for private work completed under the guidance of a tutor who is not connected with any institution of higher learning?
3. What credit may properly be allowed toward a curriculum leading to the bachelor's degree for a life certificate based on examinations without normal school attendance? Would you allow any credit? If so, on what basis would you determine the amount of credit to be allowed?
4. What credit may properly be allowed toward a curriculum leading to the bachelor's degree for a two-year normal school course completed in 1900? In 1915? In 1925? Would you allow the same amount of credit in each case? If not, what should determine the amount of credit allowed?
5. What credit may properly be allowed toward a curriculum leading to the bachelor's degree for a specialized two-year course in physical education when the student wishes to prepare for the teaching of English in the high schools? What principles should guide your committee on credits, or your admission official in determining the amount of credit that should be allowed?
6. What recognition should the graduate schools of education give your graduates who apply for admission? Should they be admitted to full graduate standing, whether or not their undergraduate work meets the standards set up by the graduate school?

These are a few of the many perplexing problems which must be solved by admission officials. At present each institution must rely on precedent or on the experience of other institutions. In a few instances there have been local agreements on certain points, but for the most part, there are no commonly accepted principles or rules of procedure.

The problems of credit administration are especially acute in the teacher-training field today. Several factors contribute to this difficulty: (1) a very large proportion of teachers in the United States have not obtained a bachelor's degree; (2) there is an increasing demand on the part of employing agencies that these teachers take further work which will eventually lead to the bachelor's degree; (3) salary schedules are often based on the amount of college work which a teacher has completed; (4) large numbers of teachers have completed work in several institutions; and (5) many teachers are seeking a degree mainly for the recognition it will give.

It is not uncommon for students to send copies of their accumulated credits from many sources, with much apparent overlapping in level and content of work, to several institutions in order to determine where they will receive the most credit.

American secondary and higher education is measured quantitatively in terms of credits, units, semester-hours, quarter-hours, term-hours, or points. Progress through the school and college toward a degree or a diploma is indicated by the number of credits completed with satisfactory scholarship. It is a process of accumulating credits until the minimum quantity is reached which will warrant the award of a degree or diploma. Whether or not we are in full sympathy with this process of getting an education by piling up credits, it is the system we are called upon to administer. It is the prevailing American system.

It is exceedingly difficult to establish principles and rules of procedure in this field. However, credit administration is so vital a factor in higher education that it should receive the most careful attention of the faculties of our institutions. It should not be delegated to clerical assistants who have little or no knowledge of the principles involved. Difficult as the problem is, there are some principles which should be clearly recognized and applied, and other principles and rules of procedure which should be developed.

Professor Evenden told you last year at Cleveland of the work of an unofficial group which has been studying these problems for the past four years. A short time after the Cleveland meeting you received a list of tentative statements. Your criticisms and suggestions were sought and have been carefully considered by this group. Within a few weeks a revised list of statements will be sent to you with the request for further criticism and suggestions. These statements deal with many problems affecting admissions and credit administration. An attempt is being made this year to include in the statements suggestions relative to the administration of curriculums and principles affecting certification. It is hoped that these statements will assist in bringing about a closer cooperation between certifying agencies and the administration of credits in teacher-training institutions.

It has been the feeling of the representatives of some thirty institutions participating in the discussions which have led to these statements of principles and rules of procedure, that they should be considered tentative and unofficial, and not binding on any institution. They will be helpful, however, to the degree that they stimulate discussion and study and result in more desirable practise in credit administration.

It is my purpose in appearing on this program to emphasize the importance of credit administration as one of the basic factors in the standards of teacher-training institutions and to invite your cooperation in the further development of principles and rules of procedure which should prove to be of mutual help.

THE STATUS OF CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

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Forty years ago such a topic as this would not have entered the mind of a program committee. Indeed, not until 1892 when President William Rainey Harper made the startling announcement that the new University of Chicago would teach by correspondence and give full credit for work done in this way, had *any* college or university in this country espoused the method. Today, scores of universities, teachers colleges, and normal schools in practically every state of the union, not to speak of 350 and more proprietary enterprises, offer home-study courses in innumerable subjects. Almost every field of knowledge is now opened up to those debarred from classroom privileges.

Thirty-three of the forty-two universities and colleges united in the National University Extension Association are giving instruction by mail. It is about their *credit* home-study courses and particularly about those given by the institution with which I am connected of which I shall speak. I hope you will pardon frequent reference to the University of Chicago.

Twenty-five of these thirty-three member institutions report that during 1928-29 upwards of 48,000 men and women were pursuing courses of a high-school, college, or graduate character, in 297 subjects ranging from agriculture to aviation, from economics to religious education, from chemistry to Semitic languages.

The student body, in a single institution, in 1928-29, included representatives of more than three hundred vocations, living in all the states of the union and in twenty-one foreign countries, and ranging in age from 17 to 71. Five-ninths of the 6225 students there were between twenty and thirty years of age. The majority of them were in the ranks of education and comprised college presidents, deans, and other administrative officers, even trustees, but in the group there were also religious leaders, judges, lawyers, bankers, merchants, authors, artists, homemakers at one end of the line, and from the humbler vocations, bricklayers, chauffeurs, cigar-makers, farmers, miners, letter-carriers, waiters, and house-servants.

It may surprise you to learn that 103 members of the present faculty and administrative body of the University of Chicago have, at some time, been enroled in its Home-Study Department; that some individuals have earned more than two years of credit through these courses, (and are still enroling, even though it will avail them nothing from the point of view of credit); that last year alone, 155 men and women were enroled who previously had earned thirty semester-hours or more of credit or who, on completing the course then started, would have this amount.

Studies conducted recently at the Universities of Minnesota, Texas, Indiana, Kentucky, and Chicago showed that, on the whole, the grades earned by a student in home-study courses were higher than those earned by him in residence courses. Perhaps this was because, in studying by correspondence, he had time for all the prescribed and collateral reading, for assimilating the results of his study, and for expressing himself in well-considered phrases; whereas, on the campus, he was obliged, sick or well, prepared or unprepared, to go on record in three or more subjects at fixed hours every day of the week.

As a rule, the constituency of a given institution lives within a relatively short distance of it. Naturally, citizens of a state look to its university for educational guidance, but some institutions are reaching out the helping hand to individuals as widely separated as Alaska is from South Africa, and Poland from China. One cannot but admire the courage and passion for self-improvement which lead a gold-miner's wife above the Arctic Circle, a young Belgian medical missionary on the Congo, a teacher in Warsaw, and a young Chinese banker in Shanghai to seize the opportunity for advancement which educators of vision have created. Their kind exists by thousands much nearer home. One cannot contemplate calmly, therefore, indications of a tendency to curtail these privileges. When higher institutions shun the leadership which properly belongs to them, those with less altruistic ideals will seize the opening.

Not the least of the benefits which sponsoring of the home-study method by colleges and universities has brought about, has been to lead commercial enterprises to raise their standards and correct their practises. The organization of the National Home-Study Council, with its code of ethics, to which more than thirty proprietary enterprises adhere, bears eloquent witness to this.

At this point, I want to read the standards for extension teaching adopted by the National University Extension Association.

1. *Character and content of extension credit courses*—Whether or not such courses have counterparts in residence, they shall be equivalent to residence courses on the same level. They shall be approved by the head of the department directly concerned or such other authorities as are provided for by the rule of the institution. The titles, if any, and numbers of these courses shall appear in the proper place in the general announcement or other official bulletin of the University.

2. *Admission to extension credit courses*—Students may be admitted to such courses provided they satisfy the proper official that they are prepared to pursue the course with profit and provided they pay the prescribed fee.

3. *Teaching hours in extension class courses*—In such courses there shall be the same number of clock hours of class instruction as in similar courses in residence.

4. *Examinations*—No student shall be given credit for an extension credit course until he has passed a supervised examination or other appropriate test on the ground covered.

5. *Extension Instructors*—Instructors in extension credit courses shall be members of the regular university faculty or shall be appointed as nonresident members of the faculty in accordance with the rules governing such appointments in the various institutions concerned, their names to appear in the appropriate university announcement.

6. *Credit*—Students who pursue extension credit courses and who meet all re-

quirements laid down shall be given the same amount of credit as they would receive for corresponding courses conducted in residence.

7. *Recording and reporting of credit*—In recording and transferring credits earned through extension, the records should show that such courses were taken by extension. It should be specified, also, whether such credits were earned through class instruction or correspondence study.

The enunciation of these standards did much to stabilize home-study and extension teaching and to gain supporters for it, both on and off the campus. While differences in institutional machinery and other conditions necessitate slight modification of these rules in certain instances, there is whole-hearted allegiance to the spirit of them throughout the Association.

There are four essential elements of a home-study lesson:

1. Definite assignments, by pages, in the book or books upon which instruction in the course is based.
2. References, sufficiently clear, to the books recommended for collateral reading.
3. Directions for the study of this particular assignment, including hints as to salient points, cues for the solution of especially knotty problems, remarks on the relation of the topic under consideration to preceding and future topics, etc. In a word, the gist of what would be given over the desk. Sometimes this takes the form of a summary of the lecture.
4. Questions that will test both a student's understanding of what he has learned and how to apply it.

In proportion as the lessons are well organized, the instructional element in them is adequate and the questions are clear and carefully phrased, will the time and effort involved in correcting papers be reduced to the minimum?

Those who are charged with the administration of home-study courses are increasingly concerned about the *quality* rather than the *number* of applicants. More and more carefully are applications scrutinized to determine in advance, if possible, whether the outcome of the student's venture will be a success. During the first six months of this year, we have returned nearly $1500 to persons whose qualifications were deemed inadequate or who chose unsuitable courses. At least three times as many persons as were involved in these refunds were advised either not to enrol or to make further preparation through local agencies for the courses desired. Resulting from these precautionary measures, the level of competency in the enrolment is steadily rising. During 1928-29, approximately 1075 Bachelors, 300 Masters, and 30 holding the Ph. D. degree availed themselves of the facilities of the Home-Study Department of the University of Chicago.

As soon as an application is accepted, the first lessons are mailed to the student with a word of welcome, either by the office or the instructor. If the instructor forwards them, it makes for a feeling of personal interest which is of fundamental importance in a long distance connection. As each report comes in, it is read, graded, and returned to the writer by the man who is announced to give the course. Often, the wide margin which a student is directed to leave on each sheet of his report is sufficient for the comments and corrections, but now and then the commentary bulks into a lengthy letter. When all the lessons of the course are finished, the student who wants credit undergoes a final examination, either at the home office, or, if elsewhere, under supervision approved by the office.

Those regularly accepted as supervisors are: University or college registrars, superintendents of public instruction, and high-school principals. However, exceptions are made in favor of other educational officials and representatives of the government when the student lives in a small, isolated community and insistence on the regular type of supervision would entail extreme hardship. Who would have had the heart to ask the farmer in Saskatchewan to leave his harvest field and travel 250 miles to get to the nearest high-school principal? He was allowed to write under the watchful eye of the local minister.

In order to make sure that a student deserves credit, the final examination is safe-guarded in every way possible. The tests are so constructed that cheating is difficult. Those who fool the supervisor are generally caught by internal evidence such as disparity between character of the examination paper and previous lesson papers, diction, style, handwriting, etc. Furthermore, the proctor is asked to fill out a certificate of supervision in which he affirms that the student did not see the questions before the examination period, that he answered them in his presence without aid of any kind, and that he was reasonably sure of his identity. Need it be made more air tight?

Many problems face the director of an extension division, but I shall dwell only on the three which the majority of directors reporting to me said give them the greatest concern. These are:

Fidelity of the instructor
Adequate laboratory and library facilities for the student
The revision of courses.

In teaching by mail, no one factor is more vital than the fidelity of the instructor to his job. If he is perfunctory, procrastinating, or pugnacious, he is worse than useless, regardless of his erudition, because he not only creates ill feeling toward himself, but also toward the institution he represents and toward the method. He must be chosen with care. When one considers that the men and women to be drafted are specialists, that their time is heavily mortgaged to the campus routine, to research, and to outside demands inseparable from their position, the task of the extension director in finding eligible instructors is seen to be arduous. An arrangement that would go far to dissolve difficulties would be to designate a suitable member of the faculty of each department to take care of extra-mural instruction in his field. His residence teaching load and his compensation should be properly adjusted. If a *new* man be appointed for home-study work, he should have full faculty standing and recognition and an adequate salary. He should participate on equal terms in all departmental faculty meetings, so as to be perfectly familiar with the standards, aims, and trends in his department. Pending the day when home-study work consumes all his time, he can bear a share of the residence load. Out of contact with off-campus students, both the designated faculty member and the new appointee can contribute to the solution of certain campus problems.

Until the ideal arrangement is realized, we shall have to rely on the fee basis of remuneration (for which, after all, a good deal can be said) and on the personal idealism and conscientiousness of faculty members. That these qualities permeate our faculties is attested by the number and rank of those on the home-study teaching staffs. The list runs over a hundred names in some catalogues and includes scores of professors and associate professors of national reputation.

Some extension divisions are more autonomous than others. As a result, the method of appointing the *non-faculty* instructor differs. The procedure in most cases is as follows: He is nominated or endorsed by the head of the department in which his courses fall, approved by the director of the extension division, and, by him, recommended to the president for appointment. His courses are organized in accordance with residence standards to yield a certain amount of credit. More and more, the necessity of training men and women to teach by correspondence becomes pressing.

Next in importance to the difficulty of finding able and conscientious instructors is the problem of providing the books and apparatus for study. The increasing number of public libraries, their liberal policies, and the efforts made to keep books circulating, both locally and throughout even state-wide areas, are reducing the handicaps of isolated study. Most libraries in the large centers maintain advisers who are eager to aid earnest students. In many states, the student can borrow books from the state library or through the library commission, or, with the help of the local librarian, from a neighboring library. Some institutions lend sets of books to their home-study students for a given period and a few lend sets of apparatus for courses requiring laboratory work, but far more help of this kind should be given. Experience shows that funds that can be spared for increasing the means of study are soundly invested, because losses from loans are practically negligible and are more than covered by the rental fee. The facts warrant a very liberal policy as to loans.

The task of keeping courses uptodate is troublesome. An extension director wakes up some morning to find that a department has radically changed its program. For example: The department of history announces that the three introductory courses on European history, which for years have afforded the basic preparation for specialized study in this field, are to be supplanted by a series of courses on the history of civilization. The idea is capital, but it means scrapping reams of outlines and organizing new sets developed from a different point of view and employing new texts. Fortunately for the director, changes of this magnitude are infrequent.

The substitution of improved lessons in a course is a matter of everyday occurrence. When the correspondence teaching staff is made up exclusively or mainly of those who also teach resident students, it is not so hard to ascertain when a course or parts of it should be altered. A different status calls for special machinery. It is at this point that an extension board, mainly advisory in character, made up of a small body of men, each of whom represents a group of closely related departments, functions helpfully.

A home-study department, well articulated with the residence department of the university, serves many valuable purposes. It enables a student to prepare for entrance, to advance during periods of enforced absence, to carry on the program best suited to himself, in spite of conflicts in class hours, or the unfortunate, for him, scheduling of sequential courses, and to round out unfinished residence courses according to a regulated procedure that unquestionably entitles him to credit. As an illustration of these services, so far this year the different deans at the University of Chicago, for good and sufficient reasons, have given 203 students permission to pursue home-study courses concurrently with residence work. During 1928-29, 248, who were obliged to drop out of their residence courses before the end of the quarter, finished them under the auspices of our Home-Study Department.

Home-study courses furnish opportunity also for determining quite definitely whether a given student has the initiative, perseverance, mental caliber, accuracy, and other qualities which are requisite for success in intellectual endeavor. The propriety of requiring certain types of students to do a part of their work by correspondence more than once has been suggested.

Now and then the remark has been dropped that an *instructor* could improve his classroom procedure by presenting his material in the systematic way in which home-study courses are organized.

Within the past month the twenty-five members of the National University Extension Association, which give credit home-study courses, have reported a gradual, but steady increase in enrolment up to 1928-29. During that year, registrations, especially in the larger schools, dropped slightly. Various reasons are given for this. Chief among them is an increasing conservatism on the part of certain state boards of education and voluntary educational associations regarding the amount of extension credit which may be offered for teachers' certificates and degrees. Other reasons mentioned are:

1. That a person, whose main concern is to gain credit, is quick to realize it is more easily obtained in extension or summer school *classes* where much less of accurate individual response is demanded, than in a home-study course.
2. That the *promotion* of home-study courses has not been as intensive as that of classroom courses.
3. That the supply of teachers in recent years is greater than the demand for them (witness the difficulty certain teachers' agencies are having in maintaining existence).

A portentous reason for the falling off is a seeming shift in emphasis from the objective of *teaching to live* to that of *teaching to make a living*. Traces of this change of emphasis are discernible in the curriculums of institutions on every level and there is quite clear evidence of it (to quote a statement made in January by the Executive Secretary of the National Home-Study Council) "in a gratifying growth in the last two years of interest in the home-study courses offered by the proprietary schools." According to public prints of last week, the outstanding captain of industry in the middle west proposes to devote $100,000,000 of his fortune to vocational schools. That this will cause curriculum makers to become more responsive to the bread and butter type of program is scarcely to be doubted. Should not the champions of liberal education unite in supporting home-study courses, along with other agencies, for intellectual improvement, so that individuals here and there who wish broader knowledge in order to interpret and direct contemporary life can get it. Those who, like Professor Bobbitt, believe that "education must elevate the quality of current human living; i. e., everything both subjective and objective a person does," will surely assent. Some of you may have heard President Frank of the University of Wisconsin prophesy that civilization and the educational system it has produced might break down as a result of what he trenchantly calls the "Fordizing of learning."

The files of every extension director contain numerous letters from students and instructors alike expressing satisfaction with the results obtainable by this method. Without doubt, you will consider some of them extravagant endorsements, but they come unsolicited and from unquestionably competent judges.

Teaching by correspondence is a new educational tool, which has been forged, developed to a high degree, and widely adopted within a generation. Already, it has produced remarkable results. It can be tempered and molded for new uses, whether in the realm of adult education, alumni needs, professional and vocational interests, or in the process of training the youthful mind. In any scheme of education, prescribed, elective, or the emerging individualized program, which in differing ways is being tried out at Swarthmore, Rollins, Mount Holyoke, Harvard, and other centers, this tool can be used effectively. *Without it, no educational shop is completely equipped.*

By home study, upwards of three million people each year are improving themselves. No one can guess what the number will be when home study and radio are coordinated in a university of the air. Extension directors are experimenting with the combination.

This rapid survey of the inauguration, growth, conduct, and results of teaching by correspondence on the academic level will give you some conception of its value and potentialities. During the past twelve months, several colleges and universities, among them one of the largest in the Mississippi Valley, have appointed committees to report on the advisability of offering credit courses by correspondence. Do you wonder?

UNIT COSTS IN TEACHERS COLLEGES

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Cost studies are not held in the best of repute by the administrators of some of our normal schools and teachers colleges. Such studies are frequently criticised as inaccurate, as suggesting incorrect conclusions, and as entailing much more labor than their value justifies. There is no need to deny that present technics of cost analyses have many limitations or that results are frequently misinterpreted. But this condition should not prevent consideration of the values of a cost analysis and careful comparison of advantages and disadvantages.

Perhaps no little of the existing unfavorable attitude toward costs is due to the sins committed by those who have conducted such studies. (In making such a charge I feel compelled to class myself as one of the worst transgressors.) It is altogether possible that a great deal of time, money, and trained service can be utilized in collecting a mass of statistical information for the preparation of attractive charts and graphs. When such procedures are followed cost studies become an end, not a means. Accountants, too, are inclined to be painstakingly accurate over minute items even though these items may have resulted from a procedure involving assumptions the accuracy of which is unknown. Then, too, those who have interpreted the results of studies have not infrequently given the impression that the principal purpose of a cost analysis is to find where costs may be reduced. I presume that even in institutions of higher education conditions are sufficiently competitive to demand that in general costs should be reduced where such reduction will not ultimately decrease efficiency or jeopardize quality. But certainly we would not wish to suggest such a purpose as the sole or even the principal function of cost accounting.

From the point of view of an institution, the function of a cost study is two-fold. First, it should give the administrator necessary facts and information for determining most pertinent needs and for convincing others of these needs. Second, it should aid the administrator in utilizing most advantageously the funds he obtains in the administration of his institution. From the point of view of the state, or those who are in part responsible for state teacher-training programs, cost findings should supplement other data in the determination of relative business efficiency of the institution involved, the urgency of certain requests, the immediate and ultimate cost effects resulting from the adoption of certain policies, etc. Where cost and other essential data can be utilized to supplant personal opinion and prejudice, more equitable distribution of funds will result. The danger, of course, lies in prejudicing state officials in favor of cost data to the exclusion of other pertinent facts.

Just how can cost figures be utilized in securing appropriations? I am not at all convinced that unit costs are of much assistance, either in showing the need or in securing appropriations for capital expenses. Expenditures for land, buildings, and even permanent equipment, are frequently so conditioned by the location of the institution and the time of purchase that comparable cost figures are almost impossible to obtain. Under present conditions, the amount to be requested for this type of expenditure frequently depends upon the estimate of the state architect or some other official; the need of the request depends upon means and information other than cost figures; and the actual obtaining of the appropriation hinges more upon the political influence exerted than upon any other factor. In the case of current operation expenses the same situation does not exist. Let me assume that you defend such requests before a budgetary officer or a finance committee of the legislature. This officer or committee receives a multitude of requests from different sources. The acceptance or rejection of a request may depend upon the adequacy of the information presented, personal favoritism, or the amount of confidence the committee has in the individual who is presenting the budget. During a brief period some individuals may gain for their institutions more through personal favoritism than through any other method, but over a period of years appropriations will depend more upon the confidence placed in the individual than upon this factor. This confidence depends not only upon the personal characteristics of the individual submitting the budget, his willingness to be fair in his requests and keep faith in his promises, but also more and more upon the ability of the individual to present data that make clear both his needs and honesty of purpose. When requests for operation items are based upon certain standards recognized by the budgetary officer, he has definite material to guide him in determining the reasonableness of the requests. Comparative cost figures have already been used to quite good advantage in New York State and we hope to develop a cost technic that will enable us to determine the relative urgency of requests from different institutions and present these to the budgetary officer in a satisfactory manner. I am confident that our own situation and the situation in many other states would be improved if cost technics became sufficiently general in adoption and uniform in method to warrant the establishment of standards which could be utilized in presenting our requests.

In what way can cost analyses aid in efficient administration? A few days ago a president of one of the teachers colleges remarked in my presence: "What difference does it make if chemistry costs more than English or biology? We are engaged in the training of teachers and chemistry is an essential part of the curriculum. It must be offered regardless of cost." There is truth in the statement but its limitations must be recognized. Peel[1] points out that the postmaster general of the United States may just as truthfully assert that the duty of the postal department is to collect, carry, and deliver mail regardless of what it costs. If, however, the postoffice department did not keep an account of its costs it might still be operating its own airplane service involving an expenditure considerably in excess of what it now pays private concerns performing that service for the government. It may be true that chemistry must be taught regardless of the cost but if there is evident a wide range of costs for a certain subject in chemistry, good administration dictates that the difference in costs be justified. A low cost in chemistry may indicate a heavy teaching load and result in an inferior quality of teaching. A high cost in chemistry may be due to the method of teaching utilized. If the quality of instruction that results from the methods used is such as to warrant the higher expenditure, well and good, but the instructor who advocates the method should be able to justify the cost involved. Certainly comparisons between procedures of administration and instruction that result in different costs should serve as a stimulus to experimentation, and more critical evaluation of objectives and methods, all of which should result in more efficient institutions.

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[1] Peel, Arthur J. *American School Board Journal,* June, 1927.

Sixteen teacher-training institutions have very kindly cooperated in a unit cost study. Costs have been computed for each institution by subject, subject department, years, and curriculums. In order to permit comparisons between institutions, these unit costs were then expressed in terms of a common unit. Though the study is not yet complete, some of the results that are now available raise some questions and suggest some values which I would like to present for your consideration. The salary of each member of the staff was distributed according to the activity performed and then charged to the students concerned. For all the institutions included in the study, the mean percent of total salaries expended for general overhead, (including library, administration, secretarial service, etc.) is 20 with a range from 15 to 25 percent; the mean percent expended for elementary and secondary instruction, after deductions were made for practise teaching activities, is 18 with a range from 7 to 28 percent; the mean percent of total salaries expended for college instruction, including practise teaching and observation, is 62 with a range from 51 to 76 percent.

In two of the institutions reporting, both of which are located in the same state and both interested primarily in the training of elementary teachers, one devotes 28 percent of its entire salary appropriation to elementary school instruction and the other 7 percent. One spends $63.30 per college student per year for elementary school instruction; the other spends only $13.50. The state in the first instance provides the faculty for all the schools utilized as training schools; in the second, the community bears the major proportion of the expense. I do not know which institution graduates the best qualified teachers. I do not know which plan is the most effective. But I believe that the administrators of each institution should compare the results obtained and attempt to discover the relative merits of the two plans. Perhaps the second institution will find more money should be obtained or more of the present available funds utilized for training school purposes. In such an event, the low cost should become a substantial argument in favor of such an increase. But it may happen that comparison of results will indicate to the administrator of the school having the higher costs that part of these funds can be utilized in other ways to better advantage. The point should be emphasized that the administrator should know costs and be able to justify them. Funds for teacher training are far too scarce to neglect careful consideration of costs in the determination of policies and programs.

The mean annual cost for one student carrying the normal credit load is $56.70 for general overhead, $176.40 for college instruction, and $271.80 for total salaries. In one institution, the annual per student cost for general overhead was found to be $95.70, for college instruction $376.00 and for total salaries $489.30. In another institution reporting almost the same enrolment but offering a smaller number of curriculums the annual per student cost for general overhead is $55.80, for college instruction $159.60 and for total salaries $238.50. These figures represent a difference of $39.90 per student per year for general overhead, $38 per student per year for college instruction and $172.90 per student (college student) per year for elementary and secondary instruction. The difference in the annual per student cost for all salaries is $250.80, a difference that would amount to $1003.20 per student during four years of study. Both of these institutions are members of this Association and receive the same honorable rating. What is the explanation of and justification for these differences? Is one more efficient than the other? Is the quality of training afforded by one so much better than that afforded by the other? Or is the difference due to other conditions?

Similar questions are suggested by difference in costs of curriculums. The per student cost for college instruction for a three-year course in physical education in one institution is $1147.20. For another institution in the same state, having approximately three times as great an enrolment in the curriculum, the cost for the three years is $461.46. The difference is $685.74. The per student cost for a three-year commercial course in one institution is $394.50. For another institution in the same state, having almost three times as many students enroled in this curriculum, the cost for the three years is $646.50. In another institution in another state, the cost for four years of commercial training is $597.50. Numerous other instances could be cited that illustrate the necessity of comparing costs and methods and conditions of administration and instruction that account for the differences that exist.

In attempting to suggest some of the values of unit costs, I do not wish to deny the many limitations of unit cost studies. The fact can not be overemphasized that cost figures should constitute only a fraction of the data essential to the determination of policies and programs. Then, too, cost comparisons are at present frequently quite unfair and worthless because a standard unit and procedure has not been agreed upon. The value of cost studies would be increased in no small measure if standard methods and units could be adopted. I have the temerity to recommend to this Association that a committee be appointed to consider the standardization of unit cost procedure and to cooperate with the Federal Bureau in the determination of a suitable plan whereby comparable cost figures may be obtained.

SOME PHASES OF THE TRAINING OF FACULTY MEMBERS OF TEACHERS COLLEGES

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At the Dallas meeting of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1927, a subcommittee of the Committee on Standards was requested to study the training of faculty members in the teachers colleges. The invitation was accepted, one condition only being imposed, that the sources in the study be transcripts of official records. Previous studies of training have usually been made on questionnaire data. These studies have always been open to the attack that their ultimate sources were not such that merited full respect, and no matter what treatment should be accorded their data they would always be open to criticism. The sources of this study are transcripts of the type submitted to graduate schools for entrance, or to certificate divisions of state departments of education as bases for certification. If not infallible as sources, they are at least much less open to question than are records of the questionnaire type.

Difficulties were encountered in collecting these transcripts. Whatever may be acceptable theory, presidents do not in practise keep a file of transcripts, one for each faculty member. If this same transcript ever functioned in the selection of a faculty member it had long since been "misplaced." Some presidents misunderstood, a few resented, and many questioned why a transcript that an "American Collegiate Registrar" would accept was necessary to the study. By patience and perseverance an appreciable number of transcripts were brought together. Of these, 1427 were found usable and constitute the sample studied. This sample has been checked against its universe both by probable error, and by a spot map, the latter device being used to answer in a non-mathematical way the question of reliability. It seems quite reasonable that the transcripts received represent the best side of the situation studied. Instead of being an exactly true picture of its universe, it is believed the sample gives a picture quite a little better than the whole would show. This, in spite of favorable P. E. and a very reassuring spot map, is pointed out that the status of the study may be kept in mind when weighing the report.

The data were tabulated and interpreted by Professor Harris Cook of the State Teachers College at Canyon, Texas. The report here presented is a brief of the dissertation by Professor Cook on the same subject which will soon be off the press. Only the main issues may be treated here.

Perhaps the first question to be asked of a group of teachers, such as the faculty members of teachers colleges, is, do they meet in quantity the standards imposed by the group itself as shown by standard V-B "Presumably the Possession of a Master's Degree." *Do the teachers college faculty members meet this quantity standard?*

The answer is that almost 3 out of 5 (58.9 percent) do not when critic teachers are included ("six years from date of adoption of standards, etc.") and slightly more than one half (53 percent) when excluded. This answer is in rather close agreement with recent previous studies such as the one reported by Hendricks in 1928.[1]

Perhaps the most significant feature of Table I is, however, the variation among the different subjects in meeting this standard. *In art, commerce, health, industrial arts, library science, music, and physical education more than four out of five of the teachers considered fail to meet this standard.* The table follows:

TABLE I—CLASSIFICATION OF HIGHEST DEGREES OF TEACHERS IN TEACHERS COLLEGES

Teaching Groups: (A) Agriculture, (B) Art, (C) Biology, (D) Chemistry, (E) Commerce, (F) Critic teachers, (G) Education, (H) English, (I) Geography, (J) Health, (K) History, (L) Home Economics, (M) Industrial Arts, (N) Languages, (O) Latin, (P) Library Science, (Q) Mathematics, (R) Music, (S) Physical Education, (T) Physics, (U) Public Speaking, (V) Science, and (W) Social Science.

	Doctors			Masters			Bachelors			No Degree		
G	N	PG	PT	N	PG	PT	N	PG	PT	N	PG	PT
A	0	0	0	11	50.0	0.97	11	50.0	0.97	0	0	0
B	0	0	0	8	18.6	0.71	21	48.8	1.86	14	32.5	1.24
C	3	9.4	0.26	22	68.7	1.95	6	18.7	0.53	1	3.1	0.08
D	3	11.1	0.26	14	51.8	1.24	9	33.3	0.80	1	3.7	0.08
E	0	0	0	6	12.5	0.53	30	62.5	2.67	12	25.0	1.06
F	0	0	......	59	19.3	....	193	63.3	....	53	17.4	....
G	18	11.5	1.60	87	55.8	7.74	42	26.9	3.73	9	5.8	0.80
H	5	3.7	0.44	95	70.9	8.45	32	23.9	2.84	2	1.5	0.17
I	1	2.8	0.08	20	55.5	1.78	15	41.7	1.33	0	0	0
J	0	0	0	2	11.8	0.17	13	76.5	1.15	2	11.8	0.17
K	2	3.1	0.17	45	69.2	4.00	17	26.1	1.51	1	0.6	0.08
L	0	0	0	27	41.5	2.40	33	50.8	2.93	5	7.7	0.44
M	0	0	0	4	8.3	0.35	28	58.3	2.49	16	33.3	1.42
N	3	6.1	0.26	25	51.0	2.22	21	42.8	1.86	0	0	0
O	1	6.6	0.08	8	53.3	0.71	5	33.3	0.44	1	6.6	0.08
P	0	0	0	4	15.4	0.35	18	69.2	1.60	4	15.4	0.35
Q	0	0	0	30	51.8	2.67	26	44.8	2.31	2	3.4	0.17
R	0	0	0	3	3.7	0.26	45	55.5	4.00	33	40.7	2.93
S	2	1.9	0.17	15	14.6	1.33	74	71.8	6.58	12	11.6	1.00
T	2	13.3	0.17	10	66.6	0.89	3	20.0	0.26	0	0	0
U	0	0	0	3	25.0	0.26	7	58.3	0.62	2	16.7	0.17
V	6	18.2	0.53	14	42.4	1.24	13	39.4	1.15	0	0	0
W	7	18.4	0.62	22	57.9	1.95	7	18.4	0.62	2	5.3	0.17
Total..	53	......	3.71	534	......	37.39	669	......	46.85	172	......	12.04

G—Teaching groups listed by the key letters.
N—Number of teachers in each group holding this degree.
PG—Percentages calculated on basis of the number of teachers in the teaching group.
PT—Percentages calculated on the basis of the total number of teachers who give instruction in the college.

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[1] E. L. Hendricks, "Twenty Years of Progress in the Qualifications and Salaries of Teachers of Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges." *Proceedings,* National Education Association. Vol. 66, p 920-28. 1928.

The next table presented is one showing the specific subject preparation of teachers-college faculty members. It is in answer to such questions as: Is the English professor trained in English for the work he is doing?

The twenty-three groups are the groups used by Professor Cook and were to a large extent determined by the data used. In some instances, as in the case of critic teachers, the subject of specialization is not so obvious as in history. In the case of the critic teachers the subjectmatter of education was assigned as the subject of specialization. A subsequent tabulation which shows the association between the courses taken by the two groups "education and critic teachers," justifies in part at least this definition. The training of the median teachers of the different subject groups is found in the right-hand column. The table follows:

TABLE II[1]—SHOWING PREPARATION (UNDERGRADUATE & GRADUATE) IN SUBJECT TAUGHT, IN SEMESTER HOURS, OF 1427 TEACHERS COLLEGE TEACHERS

	In-def.	0	1 to 12	13 to 24	25 to 36	37 to 48	49 to 60	61 to 72	73 to 84	85 to 96	97 to 108	109 to 120	121 to 132	133 to 144	157 to 168	181 to 192	Total
Agri.	1	....	....	2	1	2	4	3	4	4	1	...	...	...	...	...	22
Art.	....	....	1	4	6	6	10	6	5	3	1	...	...	1	...	...	43
Biol.	3	....	3	3	5	6	2	6	1	1	...	1	...	...	...	...	31
Chem.	....	....	3	5	6	3	1	4	2	....	...	...	...	3	...	...	27
Com.	1	11	7	8	9	4	4	....	....	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	48
Critic.	1	1	11	62	89	47	42	21	11	11	3	3	3	...	...	...	305
Educ.	....	....	7	12	16	18	23	28	26	10	9	3	1	1	...	...	156
Eng.	4	....	4	13	21	34	22	25	4	2	3	1	...	1	...	...	134
Geog.	1	3	5	5	8	3	6	2	1	1	...	1	...	...	...	...	36
Health.	1	....	2	4	3	5	....	1	2	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	18
Hist.	....	....	4	16	11	14	13	3	2	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	65
Home Ec.	....	....	....	4	10	16	18	9	4	3	1	...	...	...	...	...	65
Ind. A.	....	2	2	7	10	4	11	3	7	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	48
Lang.	3	....	3	3	4	9	7	5	7	5	1	...	2	1	1	...	51
Latin.	....	....	....	3	6	2	3	....	....	....	1	...	...	...	...	...	15
Lib. Sc.	1	10	7	2	5	....	....	1	....	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	26
Math.	....	....	5	17	15	7	8	2	....	....	...	...	1	...	...	...	55
Music.	....	5	4	7	18	8	9	9	5	11	4	...	...	1	...	...	81
Phys. Ed.	2	9	28	14	22	15	8	4	1	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	103
Physics.	....	1	3	....	2	4	....	3	....	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	15
Pub. Sp.	....	1	3	....	2	3	....	1	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	12
Science.	1	....	2	2	3	4	8	6	3	....	...	1	...	2	...	...	33
Soc. Sc.	1	2	5	3	8	5	6	3	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	30

[1] Adapted from table presented by Harris Cook in "The Training of Teachers College Faculty Members." Peabody Contribution, 1930.

Read table thus: there was one teacher of agriculture among the 22 transcripts of agricultural teachers considered whose training was "indefinite in quantity," there were two of this group with training in quantity between 13 and 24 hours of agriculture; two with training between 37 and 48 hours; four between 49 and 60, etc.

Have the teachers-college faculty members had sufficient training in the subject each is teaching?

In the subjects in Table I in two of the twenty-three subjects shown half the teachers college faculty members in those subjects whose transcripts were used had less training in the subject than was required in a recent study,[1] as adequate preparation to teach the subject in high school. Twenty semester hours in the subject taught were defined in this study as adequate preparation for high-school teaching.

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[1] State Department of Education High School Division. *A Study of South Carolina High School Conditions.* Columbia, S. C. 1930. 119 pages.

In nine of the twenty-three subjects, one-half the teachers whose transcripts were considered had less work in the subject they were teaching than could be obtained by studying the subject three hours per week for the four years of undergraduate work.

In only 10 of the 23 subject groups did half the teachers whose transcripts were studied have as many hours in the subject each was teaching as is required in Tennessee of a Smith-Hughes high-school teacher of agriculture.

Cook in this dissertation [1] set up as standard amounts of training for these teachers college faculty members 24 semester hours of undergraduate work and 15 hours of graduate work or a total of 49 hours in the subject taught. This assumption had its basis in: the acceptance of the master's degree as constituting minimum training for a teachers-college faculty member, and in the interpretation of undergraduate prerequisites in the major subject plus graduate requirements in the same graduate subject among the members of the American Association of Universities. The following table shows the percent of each of the twenty-three groups meeting these standards:

TABLE III—THE PERCENT OF TEACHERS IN EACH TEACHING GROUP THAT MEET THE ASSUMED STANDARDS FOR UNDERGRADUATE, GRADUATE, AND TOTAL AMOUNT OF CREDIT IN SPECIFIC SUBJECT TRAINING

Teaching groups	Percent meeting undergraduate standard	Percent meeting graduate standard	Percent meeting total standard
Agriculture	77.27	31.81	72.72
Art	86.04	18.60	60.44
Biology	46.87	59.37	34.37
Chemistry	44.44	55.55	37.03
Commerce	35.41	10.40	16.66
Critic Teachers	68.85	15.08	30.82
Education	66.02	67.30	64.10
English	60.44	56.71	43.29
Geography	27.77	47.22	30.55
Health	47.05	17.64	11.76
History	36.92	55.38	30.76
Home Economics	89.23	30.77	36.92
Industrial Arts	77.08	0	47.91
Languages	89.79	47.00	59.18
Latin	66.66	33.33	20.00
Library Science	19.23	3.85	3.85
Mathematics	43.10	29.20	24.13
Music	76.66	2.46	48.14
Physical Education	43.69	8.73	12.62
Physics	20.00	66.66	20.00
Public Speaking	50.00	8.33	25.00
Science	84.84	33.33	63.63
Social Science	28.94	57.89	36.84
Total	60.29	32.84	39.00

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[1] Cook, Harris. "The Training of Teachers College Faculties," Peabody Contribution, 1930.

Must a teachers college president exercise greater care as to training in the selection of teachers of some subjects than in others?

Variation of the percents of the teaching groups is the most striking feature of this second table.

The chances are approximately eighteen times as great that an agriculture teacher in the teachers college will meet this standard of training as the chances of a teacher of library science meeting it. The chances are twice as great that a teacher of education will meet this standard as that a mathematics teacher will meet it. On the whole, the probability of a teacher meeting the undergraduate standard is twice as great as that of meeting the graduate standard.

In the six socalled special subjects such as commerce, library science, industrial arts, music, physical education, and public education the chances range from nine to ten to certainty that a teacher will not meet the graduate standard.

The chances are less than one in six that a critic teacher can meet the graduate standard. *One of the two divisions in education is in the care of undergraduates.*

Does it mean anything like a standardized training when it is found that a group of teachers have had the same number of hours training in a subject? Crabb,[1] Jarrett,[2] and others have found a wide range of variation among titles and contents of courses. Cook similarly finds:

TABLE IV—SPECIFIC COURSES IN CHEMISTRY IN THE TRAINING OF THE 27 TEACHERS OF CHEMISTRY

Courses	U	G	Courses	U	G
Agricultural chemistry	2	1	Organic chemistry	9	11
Analysis	1	2	Organic preparations	3	7
Bio-chemistry	0	1	Periodic systems	0	2
Chemical engine design	1	1	Phase rule and applications	0	1
Chemical literature	0	1	Physical chemistry	5	8
Chemical machinery	1	0	Physiological chemistry	2	1
Colloid chemistry	0	1	Problems in chemistry	0	1
Dairy chemistry	0	1	Qualitative analysis	10	6
Descriptive chemistry of the rarer elements	0	1	Qualitative chemistry	7	2
Electro-chemistry	3	1	Quantitative and qualitative analysis	0	1
Electrolytic methods	1	0	Radio-activity	0	1
Electron theory	0	1	Research in chemistry	0	8
Food chemistry	4	4	Seminar	1	3
Gas analysis	0	1	Special topics	0	4
Historical chemistry	1	0	Systematic inorganic chemistry	0	1
History of chemistry	2	0	Technical analysis	1	0
Industrial chemistry	3	1	Thesis	0	3
Inorganic chemistry	6	6	Valence	0	1
Inorganic preparations	1	3	Water analysis	1	2
Laboratory assistant	1	0	Unspecified	17	3

In the specific subject training of these teachers of chemistry, there were 40 specific courses. Listed in order of highest frequency, the eleven highest courses are: (1) organic chemistry, (2) qualitative analysis, (3) physical chemistry, (4) inorganic chemistry, (5) organic preparations, (6) quantitative analysis, (7) food chemistry, (8) research, (9) electro-chemistry, (10) industrial chemistry, and (11) inorganic preparations.

Read table thus: Two teachers of chemistry had agricultural chemistry as undergraduates, and one as a graduate, etc.

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[1] Crabb, Alfred Leland. "A Study in the Nomenclature and Mechanics Employed in Catalogue Presentation." Peabody Contribution No. 21.

[2] Jarrett, Albert Patton. "Status of Courses in Psychology in the State Teachers Colleges in the United States." Peabody Contribution No 47.

TABLE V—SPECIFIC COURSES IN EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY IN THE TRAINING OF THE 305 CRITIC TEACHERS AND OF THE 156 TEACHERS OF EDUCATION

Courses	Teachers of education		Critic teachers	
	U	G	U	G
Administrative management of pupils	0	0	1	1
Administration of higher education	0	3	0	1
Art in education	3	0	0	0
Biological aspects of education	1	0	0	0
Character education	0	0	0	1
Child study	9	9	24	3
Civic and moral education	0	3	3	1
Classroom management	33	3	68	4
Comparative education	1	4	1	0
Conduct of the recitation	1	4	3	3
Conference	2	0	4	0
Critic teaching	10	6	23	14
Current problems in education	5	2	5	5
Curriculum	22	34	31	13
Demonstration school	8	6	8	11
Dramatic arts in education	1	0	0	0
Educational diagnosis	5	7	2	2
Educational movements	0	1	0	0
Education for women	1	1	5	0
Educational problems	0	2	1	0
Educational sociology	11	13	31	5
Educational systems	6	5	5	0
Educational values	1	2	1	0
Education and nationalism	0	4	0	2
Elementary education	9	11	32	9
Elementary education: administration	5	7	5	3
Elementary education: curriculum	16	22	21	7
Elementary education: methods	16	9	30	3
Elementary education: supervision	18	20	27	10
Extracurriculum activities	2	5	1	1
Experimental education	5	21	8	6
Educational theories	0	2	6	1
Experimental teaching	2	1	1	1
Field course for superintendents	0	1	0	0
Foreign education	3	0	1	1
Foundation of method	2	11	12	9
General lectures	2	0	5	1
History of education	88	32	177	14
How to study	0	0	2	0
Immigrant education	1	0	2	0
Improvement of teaching	5	10	6	7
Improvement of the written examination	0	3	0	1
Individual differences	0	5	1	1
Individual problems	0	1	0	0
Introduction to education	6	4	22	2
Investigation of teaching	0	2	0	0
Kindergarten education	9	1	27	1
Kindergarten curriculum	0	2	7	0
Kindergarten methods	5	1	11	1
Kindergarten supervision	0	0	5	1
Kindergarten-primary unified	3	0	9	1
Materials	5	3	29	4
Mental deficiencies	1	2	1	0
Mental hygiene	0	1	3	2
Methods	52	7	98	1
Methods of research	0	5	1	2
Methods of teaching:				
Arithmetic	12	2	68	5
Civics	1	0	5	0
Drawing	0	0	5	0
English	10	2	54	2
Fine arts	0	2	1	0
Geography	7	2	41	2
Health	2	0	1	0
History	10	0	40	0
Ideals	0	0	2	0
Industrial arts	2	6	16	6
Literature	4	3	17	3
Music	1	0	10	0
Penmanship	0	0	5	0
Physical education	1	0	8	0

TABLE V—SPECIFIC COURSES IN EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY IN THE TRAINING OF THE 305 CRITIC TEACHERS AND OF THE 156 TEACHERS OF EDUCATION—Continued

Courses	Teachers of education		Critic teachers	
	U	G	U	G
Reading	14	7	58	15
Science	2	0	9	0
Social science	0	0	5	0
Spelling	1	1	3	2
Thrift	0	0	1	0
Motivation	1	0	0	0
Normal school education	2	30	11	5
Nursery school	0	0	1	2
Observational studies	2	2	11	4
Organization courses for teachers	0	3	0	0
Partime schools	2	1	0	1
Philosophy of education	22	30	28	11
Plays and games	6	3	26	9
Practise teaching	63	1	190	4
Practicum in education	2	4	4	1
Primary education	5	5	25	3
Primary curriculum	2	1	11	0
Primary manuscript writing	0	0	0	1
Primary methods	14	4	37	2
Primary supervision	3	1	10	4
Principles of education	25	6	58	4
Principles of teaching	23	3	62	1
Problems of advisors	2	3	3	2
Problems of teaching	1	2	4	4
Project teaching	2	0	10	4
Psychology	126	25	208	13
Psychology of childhood	18	21	63	7
Psychology of education	6	6	17	4
Psychology—educational	50	51	114	12
Psychology—experimental	8	9	9	0
Psychology of learning	4	13	9	0
Psychology of school subjects	5	21	21	12
Psychology—social	10	9	15	1
Research in education	5	17	0	3
Rural education	9	13	18	1
Rural administration	3	4	0	2
Rural community activities	3	6	3	0
Rural curriculum	3	3	2	1
Rural education—field course	1	0	0	0
Rural education—fundamentals	1	2	0	0
Rural education—methods	2	2	4	0
Rural education—preparation of teachers	5	4	1	2
Rural education—supervision	4	7	3	0
School administration	51	57	60	15
School community	2	2	0	0
School buildings	1	8	0	1
School festivals	2	0	1	0
School finance	2	13	0	5
School hygiene	8	4	25	0
School law	9	1	6	0
School population	0	0	1	0
School publicity	0	3	0	0
School surveys	1	31	3	3
Scientific study of education	2	1	5	0
Secondary education	7	12	22	6
Secondary administration	13	21	15	5
Secondary curriculum	5	8	6	3
Secondary education—junior high school	6	14	14	9
Secondary education—junior high materials	0	0	5	0
Secondary school methods	10	12	30	5
Secondary education—principles	4	9	6	1
Secondary education—problems	3	6	5	4
Secondary school supervision	4	8	3	4
Seminar and thesis	3	52	2	23
Social education	3	3	3	1
Specialized education	9	10	22	1
Statistics	9	45	5	11
Supervision	35	34	50	17
Supervised study	1	4	1	2
Teacher training	4	7	7	2

TABLE V—SPECIFIC COURSES IN EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY IN THE TRAINING OF THE 305 CRITIC TEACHERS AND OF THE 156 TEACHERS OF EDUCATION—Continued

Courses	Teachers of education		Critic teachers	
	U	G	U	G
Teaching college subjects	0	1	0	5
Teaching experience	17	0	13	0
Teaching the high-school subjects	6	8	1	0
Teaching high school:				
Agriculture	5	0	2	1
Art	0	0	4	0
Biology	0	0	1	0
Civics	0	0	1	2
Commerce	0	0	1	0
English	7	5	35	8
French	0	0	1	0
Geography	0	0	0	1
German	2	0	0	0
History	6	2	18	8
Home economics	0	0	9	1
Hygiene	1	0	0	0
Industrial arts	4	0	1	0
Latin	3	0	6	2
Literature	5	0	16	2
Mathematics	7	0	14	1
Modern languages	0	0	1	2
Music	1	0	3	0
Physics	1	0	1	0
Physical education	0	0	1	0
Science	1	0	9	1
Spanish	0	0	3	0
Speech	0	0	1	0
Social science	0	0	1	5
Teaching staff	1	3	4	0
Technic of teaching	10	4	18	2
Tests and measurements	36	57	71	34
Textbook selection	0	0	0	1
Theory of teaching	11	1	31	1
Types of teaching	0	0	2	0
Visual education	1	0	1	2
Vocational guidance	4	8	7	3
Unspecified	73	16	91	12

An analysis of the preceding table shows that, entering into the training of critic teachers and teachers of education, there were 175 courses in psychology and education. There were 150 courses in the case of teachers of education, 162 courses in the case of critic teachers, and 137 courses in common to both groups. This shows that there was a wide variation in the training of these two groups of teachers.

Listed in order of highest frequency, the ten highest courses in the case of the teachers of education are: (1) psychology, (2) history of education, (3) school administration, (4) educational psychology, (5) specific methods courses in the teaching of elementary school subjects (i. e., the teaching of history, the teaching of arithmetic, and so on), (6) tests and measurements, (7) supervision, (8) practise teaching, (9) specific method courses in the teaching of the high-school subjects (i. e., the teaching of history, the teaching of home economics, and so on), and (10) methods.

. Listed in order of highest frequency, the ten highest courses in the case of the critic teachers are: (1) specific methods courses in the teaching of the elementary school subjects, (2) psychology (3) practise teaching, (4) history of education, (5) specific methods courses in the teaching of the high-school subjects, (6) educational psychology, (7) tests and measurements, (8) methods, (9) school administration, and (10) classroom management.

Read table thus: three teachers had art work as undergraduates, none as graduates, etc.

In the subjectmatter of education there are many highly specialized courses in education. These have developed in part from the "selling education" idea.

If the "functional" is substituted for the "departmental" idea of organization the 175 courses offered are regrouped in one fifth the number. The frequency of the election of these special courses offers an index for this regrouping.

Summary—Less than half the faculty members in state teachers colleges, so far as this study indicates, meet the quantity standard of a master's degree. In nearly one-third of the subject groups studied, (7 out of 23), four out of five of the faculty members do not meet the master's degree standard. These seven are the commonly called "special subjects," art, commerce, health, industrial arts, library science, music, and physical education.

In more than one-third (9 out of 23) of the teaching group the teachers-college faculty members had less training in the subject taught than would be obtained by taking the subject three times a week for the four years of undergraduate study.

There is twice the probability of a teachers-college faculty member meeting a standard of 24 semester hours of undergraduate training in the subject taught as of meeting a standard of 15 hours of graduate training in the same subject.

Special subject teachers and critic teachers fall far short of meeting the American Association of Teachers College Standards.

There is very wide variation in the naming of courses for the professional preparation of teachers, which results in what at least seems to be a very wide offering in the subjectmatter of education.

Suggested remedy—It has been suggested that standards be changed, even lowered, to fit the situation described. This, it is believed, would be a very grave mistake and one which would materially hurt the standing of teachers colleges. It is suggested that the remedy lies in:

1. Enforcing the quantity standard literally in regard to all new teachers employed. If this is done strictly for five years, it is believed that the condition will have been improved to a great degree.
2. Create a standard calling for a specified number of hours preparation in the subject taught and enforce this standard *literally* in regard to all new teachers employed.
3. Require yearly statements of all members as to all new teachers employed, which statement will show the extent to which these standards have been observed.
4. Create a commission which will work for a period of years toward a standard terminology and definition of content for courses for teachers.

THE COMMONWEALTH TEACHER-TRAINING STUDY AND THE CURRICULUM

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The best method of describing the use that may be made of the technics of curriculum construction described in the Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study is to tell the story of how that investigation is now being used in the reorganization of the curriculums of the College of Education of Ohio State University. The study began last spring, and although it is still under way, it has gone far enough for us to be able to indicate the administrative set-up and the orderly procession of steps which must be made in making a complete reorganization.

The first administrative step was the request by the faculty of the College of Education that a committee be appointed to study the reorganization of the courses of study in the college. This committee when appointed consisted of representatives of all the departments of the college engaged in the training of teachers—the departments of principles of education, school administration, vocational education, history of education, and educational psychology.

In carrying out the project of reorganization the first step to be taken by the committee, and the second step in order was a demand and supply study made for the purpose of indicating the types of position for which the college should prepare. Obviously the college will train high-school teachers, principals of large and small high schools, and superintendents of large and small city school systems. But in addition to these fields there are others which should be canvassed. We have been concerned with the question of whether or not we should train supervisors of elementary schools, college teachers, administrators of higher education, elementary school teachers, and the like. Questions like these can be answered only by a demand and supply study on the one hand and a plant study on the other. It is necessary to assess the demand and the supply of trained officials in the school system to discover whether there is a need for training for this position or that, and similarly whether the institution is equipped or should be equipped to train for positions for which there is a demonstrated demand.

It is a mistake for any state institution, or for that matter for any private institution, to proceed with casualness to the training of types of school officials without a careful study of the whole question. The oversupply of high-school teachers and the shortage of well-trained elementary school teachers with which we are faced throughout the nation at the present time would not have occurred, had the teacher-training institutions carefully studied the demand and been governed by the data so collected.

At the present time this study is under way. In the meantime, however, it is unnecessary to wait for it to be completed. We know that we shall train high-school teachers, even though there is a huge oversupply in the middle west, and particularly in certain subjects. It would seem to be foolish to discard our plant, which has been built up primarily for the turning out of the high-school teacher product, and we believe that we can assist in the solution of the oversupply of high-school teachers by a better distribution of students among the subjects to be taught in the high school and by a shifting to other types of teaching position. When we decided that we should train high-school teachers a demand study in the high-school teaching field was necessary.

Such a study should be continuous, year by year, so that eventually we should be able four years ahead to forecast the number of teachers that will be needed in each of the subjects to meet the demands of the state. In the period during which these data are collected, it is important that the teacher-training institutions should become conscious of the problem and seek by various methods to adjust the supply of high-school teachers to the demand for them.

In our study of supply and demand in Ohio, we have discovered a number of facts which have a direct influence upon our courses of study. Two of these will serve as an illustration. We discovered that the inexperienced teacher in Ohio has little chance for employment if he is trained to teach less than three subjects. If he is trained to teach only one, it is practically impossible for him to secure a position. It is also apparent that a student's course of study should include an extracurriculum activity, since 75 percent of our graduates have at least one of these in each teaching program. Very often the ability to conduct an extracurriculum activity is the deciding factor in the selection of inexperienced teachers. Many other facts of this sort are revealed in a demand study.

Parenthetically it should be said that as this information is collected it should be made available to students and to advisers of students. Such a bulletin has been prepared by Dean Morrill and Professor Anderson at Ohio State University to be distributed widely among our students and prospective teachers in the high schools. These guidance bulletins will contain only information that has been secured uptodate and they will be revised as rapidly as the collection of new facts change the situation with regard to essentials and important details.

When facts such as these have been revealed in the demand and supply study to be used in making the courses of study practical, the investigation may proceed to a consideration of several projects. The first of these which we were interested in was a study of the required non-professional courses. These are a group of courses which are required of all students in vocational schools, in accordance with the principle that every professional man has interests outside of his profession and should be given assistance in developing those interests. At present the usual procedure is to require a student to carry one course in each of the great fields of knowledge—one biological science, one foreign language, and the like. The theory underlying this selection is that each student, in order to be cultured and cultivated, should have an acquaintance with several of the great fields of knowledge. The method of securing such acquaintance is to require him to take one introductory course in some one department within all the major fields.

When our committee considered this question, they set up the following objectives for the non-professional courses:

> The committee believes that these objectives may best be approached through a series of orientation courses developed (1) to show the contributions of various large fields of human activity to the solution of presentday individual and social problems; such fields as science, arts, mathematics, literature, and philosophy;

(2) to make clear something of the way in which results in one field influence other fields; how the Darwinian doctrine of biological evolution has affected all work in history, for example, and established the historical attitude in practically every field of study. This means that the teacher should see man's social endeavors as a whole, and not as isolated and piecemeal efforts of individuals; and (3) to stimulate intellectual, esthetic, and practical interests, which may be followed in later specialization.

Before the modern era of scientific discovery and invention, and its resultant specialization, it was comparatively easy for the student to get this unified view of man's social relationships. Now it has become relatively difficult; but the committee believes that much may be done in this direction by providing such synthetic, interpretational, and exploratory courses as have been described.

It will be noted from the foregoing statement of objectives that the committee favors the orientation courses, and, as a matter of fact, it has suggested the following courses as fields for exploration: the natural sciences, the social sciences, the arts, mathematics, the languages, and philosophy-ethics. About the identity of the fields and their content, the committee is at present concerned. Obviously, it is not an easy matter to decide which should be the fields of study for students. A number of questions arise. Can the biological and the physical sciences be treated together? Is there a real place for the study of the contributions of mathematics to the solution of presentday problems? Is it advisable to have a course in which the student seeks to work out his own philosophy of life? Should literature be included with music and painting in the arts course? These are questions which must be settled by the committee, reviewed by the executive committee of the college, and later passed upon by the faculty. When the decision of the faculty has been made, the departments concerned in the offering of the potential orientation courses are called together, with a view to securing their cooperation in preparing the kinds of courses which will meet the objectives of the college.

It should be pointed out in passing that if such required non-professional courses are set up for teachers they should also be adequate as the non-professional courses in every profession, since they deal entirely with the extra-vocational interests and problems of men and women, irrespective of vocational interests.

Once the required non-professional courses have been cared for, it would appear that it is necessary to determine the objectives of the college of education with regard to the training of high-school teachers which we have agreed was to be done by the college. This step is divided into two subordinate steps. In the first place, it is necessary to determine the objectives of high-school education. Since we are training teachers to teach in the high school, we must take into account the objectives of the job for which they are being trained. In the second place, it is necessary to determine the objectives of the college of education, insofar as they lie outside of the objectives of the high school. Our committee has arrived at the following statement of the objectives of secondary education:

To foster and encourage the development of an ever-expanding social outlook on life, by means of an environment which provides constant opportunity for intelligent response to a widening area of vitally-shared interests. In connection with this active participation in social living, the school should, to a degree and in a manner appropriate to the present needs and abilities of the student, provide for the following:

> A. *Social Program.*—The development of a sensitivity to the major problems of presentday social living, which grow out of the conflicts between fixed and flexible standards of conduct, and a disposition to solve these problems upon the basis of a positive, reflectively determined social program. The social heritage in its various forms should be used as a means for the securing of deeper social insight and not as the source of ready-made solutions to present social problems.
>
> B. *Intellectual and Esthetic Interests.*—The discovery of personal intellectual and esthetic interests and the development of these interests in the direction of scientifically organized knowledge and standards of judgment with reference to truth and value.
>
> C. *Practical Interests.*—The exploration and development of worthy practical interests, aptitudes, and needs, such as health and physical fitness, prevocational and vocational, designed primarily to meet the practical problems of life.

This statement has still to be submitted to the executive committee and to the faculty of the college. The statement of the objectives of the college of education, which likewise must be submitted to the faculty, is now in process of preparation.

With the objectives determined, the next logical step to follow is the investigation of the professional courses—first, the required professional courses, and second, the elective professional courses.

The required professional courses will be secured through a study of the important, difficult, and frequent duties of high-school teachers in Ohio. This data will be secured through such modification of the findings of the Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study as to make the list apply to high-school teachers of this state. This is done by having the lists checked by the proper number of teachers within the area. The underlying principle to be followed is this: The whole list of activities should somewhere be dealt with in the required courses—or, at least, the most important of these activities should be covered. Naturally, too, in connection with the courses, the qualities and traits of high-school teachers must be constantly considered.

The required courses will be of two types: the master courses, which deal with the practical technics of teaching, such as, methods of teaching, pupil personnel, and the like; and the service courses, which give background to the master courses—courses such as history of education, educational sociology, etc. In covering the master courses the activities of the Commonwealth List are obviously of direct value. It is necessary, as has just been said, to cover all of the activities from the point of view of methods of performance.

It is interesting to note what has happened in a study of practise teaching. In this course the students who were completing it were asked to check all of the duties in which they participated while carrying on their practise teaching. It became at once apparent that they secured no practise in those divisions of the list which deal with contacts with the community and only a very slight amount of participation in the duties connected with the school plant and school supplies. Whether greater participation should be provided in these areas or not is not settled by these data, but they do open up the problem as to whether or not training should be given in practise teaching or in some other course.

When the master courses have been formulated the service courses are determined. The reason for this sequence lies in the fact that the function of the service courses is to make more intelligent the use of the methods taught in the master courses. This derivation is not a difficult task, once the content of the master courses has been formulated.

When the required professional courses have been cared for, there still remains the problem of the elective courses. These need to be handled as a separate project. In our own case we have secured a detailed syllabus of each of the elective courses. The syllabi indicate the amount of time that is devoted to each topic, the references that are used, and the assignments that are made. The courses are collected into groups which are similar in subjectmatter. The instructors are asked to consider the courses as a unit, with a view to organizing the total mass of material to be taught in such a way as to avoid duplication between courses and to provide for a proper sequence. While some duplication is necessary and advisable, it is certain that the duplication in major items, about which students complain so much, can be avoided if the instructors allocate to the proper courses those topics to which major treatment should be given. It would then be understood that wherever the topics are referred to in other courses they should be given minor treatment. By this we mean that the instructor would assume that the topic had been given major treatment elsewhere in the past or would be given major treatment in the future.

The procedure can be illustrated in connection with the courses in the field of the curriculum. We now offer five major courses—two of these are offered in the elementary school curriculum; one by the department of principles and the other by the department of school administration. There are two parallel courses in the secondary school curriculum. Of the five courses, one in the technic of curriculum construction is offered to graduate students who have secured their master's degree. The instructors offering these courses hold a conference to organize the material in the curriculum field for the purposes indicated above. It is entirely possible that when the material has been viewed as a whole there might be an introductory course which would be a prerequisite for other courses. The two courses in the elementary school curriculum might be made a cooperative course between the two departments. The courses in the secondary school curriculum could be handled in the same way. The advanced credit course would still be offered. It is believed that by such a study the group of courses would be very definitely strengthened. Duplications would be omitted and gaps would be closed up, and the sequential arrangement would make for more efficient treatment of the advanced courses.

In each of the eight or ten areas which have clusters of courses such as the foregoing, it is possible to carry on a similar procedure. We have several courses in vocational guidance, a number in testing, and a large group in special methods. In such cases duplication inevitably arises unless consultation and group action is frequently resorted to.

We shall now review the steps which have been described up to the present point. We indicated, for the reasons given, that there must be, first, a demand and supply study. Then the non-professional courses will be studied. When it is decided that we shall train high-school teachers, it is necessary to determine the objectives of secondary education and the aims of the college of education. Once these have been cared for, it is necessary to determine the required professional courses, both master courses and service courses. Consideration must also be given to the elective professional courses.

There still remains to be discussed the preparation of the student to teach high-school subjects. This project divides itself into two steps. The first step is to determine the objectives of the different subjects in the high school in such a way that they shall be in harmony with the objectives of secondary education which have already been formulated by the committee. When these objectives have been agreed upon, it is then necessary to determine the optimum content of the high-school courses. This will involve a study of the courses which are actually taught in the high schools of Ohio, and will certainly involve those modifications of the courses which the faculty of the college of education feel should be made in order to make them best courses. The differences between the optimum courses and the common courses cannot be so great that the student will be lost when he begins teaching the courses that he finds in the high school. Modifications must be evolutionary rather than revolutionary.

Once this optimum content has been determined, it becomes necessary to secure the cooperation of the subjectmatter department within the university. This is needed in order to secure a small group of required courses in each subjectmatter field. The content of these courses should be prepared definitely to provide the students with the knowledge and background which they need in order to teach the high-school courses effectively. In addition to these required subjectmatter courses, the student will, of course, be in a position to carry certain elective courses within the subject. These he will take, partly because of his own interest in the field, and partly because of the more remote bearing of the courses on the subject which he expects to teach.

There remains, as a final step, a number of problems having to do with courses of study, as distinguished from content of courses. We note, for instance, that only 37 percent of those who graduate from the college of education entered this college as freshmen, and that 84 percent of those who graduate entered in the third year. This fact would have some bearing on the placing of courses in the course of study. Many other facts, of which this is one illustration, will have to be considered in setting up the high-school training program.

From the foregoing statements it is evident that the use of the Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study is merely intended to make the content of the courses as definite as possible by securing facts as objective as can be obtained. Job analysis is both a formula and an attitude. It stresses the necessity for the thoroughgoing and comprehensive analysis of all the facts about the curriculum that have a bearing upon the content. There was a time when the content of courses of study could be settled to the satisfaction of faculties by pooling opinions around a conference table. That time is now past. Curriculum construction is becoming more and more a matter of educational engineering. The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study describes certain technics which are necessary in order that the task may be efficiently performed. By a careful study of the activities and conditions of a profession it is possible to so define the content of required courses that they will not need to be changed materially until the objectives of the activities of the profession change. This is a relatively leisurely matter and if one might hazard an opinion, it would be to the effect that the required courses in a course of study for high-school teachers would not need to be overhauled completely more often than once in a decade, if provision for minor modifications is made from year to year.

WHAT ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT RECENT CONTRIBUTIONS IN THE FIELD OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION?

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Both the philosophy and the science of education have made more extensive contributions to elementary teaching than to either high-school or college teaching. In the ferment of the last thirty years there has been much of a deservedly transient nature. On the other hand these thirty years have brought many unmistakable contributions. Since there is not time to discuss all of these contributions in fifteen minutes, I shall limit what I have to say to contributions towards the solution of three closely related problems: First, how to focus attention skillfully and sympathetically on the individual child; second, how to relate tests more closely to the immediate purposes to be accomplished; and third, how to do diagnostic and remedial teaching. The second and third problems are subordinate to the first one. Their solutions are essential to its solution. Perhaps all three problems can be best illustrated in the three R's, since in teaching these subjects there are, on the one hand, the greatest opportunities for solving these problems, and on the other, the greatest temptations to neglect them.

The greatest joy and inspiration in teaching comes from the disposition to focus on the individual child as a person and from skillful technic in making this focus effective. This does not mean that instruction is to be based on the child's whims or transient purposes. Neither a sound philosophy of education nor an adequate science of education is possible on such a basis. What is meant by this focus on the individual may be brought out by answering the question, "What does the individual child have a right to expect when he comes to school?"

First, he has a right to expect that his course of study will contain what is most useful and enriching for his present and future life. There should be no time wasted in studying useless subjectmatter; there should be no opportunity lost through neglect of substantial values. In order that there be no time wasted either through the study of useless materials or through the neglect of the essentials, the child has a right to expect that the curriculum be constructed under the guidance of the most mature philosophy and by means of the most careful research. Perhaps none of the child's rightful expectations have been faced more squarely than this one in modern educational research.

Second, the individual child has a right to expect that he will not be lost sight of in lock-step or formal instruction. This does not mean that group teaching is necessarily bad or that every individual child must have his own peculiar method. On the contrary, group morale and group drive are distinct aids to the individual. The individual child has a right to expect, however, that methods used in any group work are those which have been proved to be good for most students.

Third, he has a right to expect also that a reasonable amount of freedom will be given him to progress at his own rate. The facts of individual differences in rates of progress have been proved experimentally beyond any possible doubt. Even when groups of children have been segregated by means of the most elaborate battery of tests, there are still wide differences in progress between the best and the poorest students in the group. Moreover, the rate of progress of any given child is not constant or even. He has his good days and his bad days, and even his good months and his bad months. He has heights as well as plateaus of interests and inspirations. He has a right to expect that these heights of inspiration will be utilized and that his plateaus will be reduced to the minimum. Research in elementary education has given us the technics of adjusting to individual differences in the cases of spelling, arithmetic, handwriting, and reading. The main principles of these technics are: (a) to test the child's ability to do something which is of unmistakable present and future value to him, (b) to discover for him through this test what his deficiencies are, and (c) to provide him with exercises and methods of learning which in most cases will remove his difficulties. Such procedures are possible in classes of forty or more and are therefore practicable in public schools. The time saved in such procedures is very great and the increase in rational interest on the part of the child is substantial.

Fourth, the individual child has a right to expect that when he needs additional individual help, it will be given skillfully and sympathetically. Suppose for example that although he has had pointed out to him through a preliminary test the words which he cannot spell in a given assignment, and has used methods of study which in most cases are effective, he still is unable to learn to spell the words of the lesson. He has a right to expect that this fact will be immediately noticed by his teacher rather than to have to wait until the end of the term for a mere accounting and a low grade. His teacher should ask, "What is the cause of this difficulty? Why can he not learn to spell?" He has a right to expect that this question will be attacked sympathetically and with professional skill. Suppose that the child has had pointed out to him his shortcomings in his handwriting and has been given for each shortcoming an exercise which will usually bring improvement. Suppose that in spite of this fact he makes very little improvement. He has a right to expect that his teacher will discover the fact soon and, as in the case of spelling, will work sympathetically and skillfully with him to discover the cause and help him to remove it. Similar illustrations could be drawn from arithmetic and reading.

The importance of the early discovery and remedy of shortcomings in fundamental tools in learning can scarcely be overemphasized. In the freshman class of every college and university there are students who read so poorly that it would be impossible for them to prepare their assignment even if they did not need time to eat or sleep. In the case of most of these students no teacher seems to have ever asked what their shortcomings in reading were, or how they could be removed. Such a condition is a disgrace to the public school. Most of the difficulties were undoubtedly present in the primary grades and should have been discovered and remedied there. Certainly it is not too much for a pupil to expect that he will learn to read effectively by the end of the elementary school period. As a result of the research which has been conducted in the three R's we are provided with the means of insuring to the great majority of students an adequate control of all these subjects before the end of the junior high-school period. There is, therefore, no excuse for such a condition as now exists. There are a few extreme and difficult cases with which we do not yet fully know how to deal. Such a case, however, is but one in a thousand rather than one in ten, and even in the treatment of these rare cases, encouraging progress is being made.

All this implies that teachers should regularly invoice the abilities of their pupils in each of the elementary school subjects in order that they may guide each child in his attack on the removal of his individual difficulties. Teachers need to ask not only what each child needs to learn but why some children do not learn by methods which in general bring success. Why does Mary have difficulty in spelling? Why does John read inaccurately? Why does he fail to respond to remedial handwriting exercises which in general bring satisfactory results? There is not time to discuss even the major causes for such failure. The commonest cause is to be found in the child's attitude and it is here that expert skill and human sympathy is most necessary. I once heard a thoughtful old gentleman make this statement: "There have always been great teachers and their methods have never been superseded." It is probable that the chief element of greatness in teachers is to be found in the sympathy and skill with which they develop abiding interest and right attitudes toward learning and toward life.

It is easy to see that skillful testing plays an important part in making adjustments to the individual child. We need especially more tests which are directly related to specific units of instruction. Such tests should be limited not only to those items which are most essential in education but also to the work of the grade in which the test is to be used. Few of our standard tests are of much use for this purpose. Moreover, as standard tests are commonly administered, they are more likely to call attention to grade averages rather than to individual cases, and to mystify the teacher rather than to direct his attention to the specific needs of the individual child. The common use of spelling tests is an illustration. Less than one-half of the words in one well-known test are words which should be taught in any grade in the elementary school. In the common method of giving, as a test, a sampling from a column in some spelling scale, it is not unusual to find that three-fourths of words used to test a given grade are not in the course of study which the teacher of that grade has contracted to teach or his pupils have contracted to learn. Such testing is unjust and futile for purposes of guiding instruction. The child has a right to expect that upon the supposed completion of a given contract his test will be closely related to that contract. He has a right to expect that a test at the beginning of his attack on the contract will disclose to him what he needs to do in the performance of that contract. This means that the test must be valid not only as a measure of the most useful items to be learned but also as a measure of the specific contract which is accepted by a given grade. Without such validity a test may be reliable in the sense that it is consistently bad.

In addition to tests which are given to whole groups of children, we badly need diagnostic tests for case studies of individual children. The group tests may give a list of deficiencies, but they usually do not show why these deficiencies exist. We need tests, therefore, that will discover why any given child cannot learn any given material. Very important beginnings have been made in such diagnostic testing in spelling and in reading. Work is also under way in handwriting and arithmetic. The ground has been broken for the diagnostic testing of problem cases even in conduct. When adequate diagnostic tests have been perfected and when teachers have been taught to use them skillfully and sympathetically, teaching in the elementary schools will have become both a science and an art.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES

Membership List, 1929-30

Location	Institution	President
Alabama		
Florence	State Normal School	H. J. Willingham
Jacksonville	State Normal School	C. W. Daugette
Livingston	State Normal School	G. W. Brock
Troy	State Normal School	E. M. Shackelford
Arizona		
Flagstaff	Arizona State Teachers College	Grady Gammage
Tempe	Arizona State Teachers College	A. J. Matthews
Arkansas		
Arkadelphia	Henderson State Teachers College	J. P. Womack
Conway	Arkansas State Teachers College	B. W. Torreyson
California		
Arcata	Humboldt State Teachers College	Ralph W. Swetman
Fresno	State Teachers College	Frank W. Thomas
San Diego	State Teachers College	Edward L. Hardy
San Francisco	State Teachers College	A. C. Roberts
San Jose	San Jose State Teachers College	T. W. MacQuarrie
Santa Barbara	State Teachers College	C. L. Phelps
Colorado		
Alamosa	Adams State Teachers College	Ira Richardson
Greeley	Colorado State Teachers College	G. W. Frasier
Gunnison	Western State College of Colorado	Richard Aspinall
Connecticut		
Bridgeport	Bridgeport Normal School	Margaret Kiely, Principal
Danbury	State Normal School	L. D. Higgins, Principal
New Haven	State Normal School	Lester K. Ade, Principal
Willimantic	State Normal School	George H. Shafer, Principal
Georgia		
Athens	Georgia State Teachers College	Jere M. Pound
Collegeboro	South Georgia Teachers College	G. H. Wells
Milledgeville	Georgia State College for Women	J. L. Beeson
Valdosta	Georgia State Woman's College	R. H. Powell
Hawaii		
Honolulu	Territorial Normal and Training School	B. O. Wist
Idaho		
Lewiston	Lewiston State Normal School	J. E. Turner
Illinois		
Carbondale	Southern Illinois State Normal University	H. W. Shryock
Charleston	Eastern Illinois State Teachers College	L. C. Lord
Chicago	Chicago Normal College	Butler Laughlin
Chicago	College of Education, University of Chicago	W. S. Gray, Dean
DeKalb	Northern Illinois State Teachers College	Karl L. Adams
Macomb	Western Illinois State Teachers College	W. P. Morgan
Normal	Illinois State Normal University	David Felmley*
Indiana		
Indianapolis	Teachers College of Indianapolis	Alice C. Sies
Muncie	Ball State Teachers College	L. A. Pittenger
Terre Haute	Indiana State Teachers College	L. N. Hines
Iowa		
Cedar Falls	Iowa State Teachers College	O. R. Latham
Kansas		
Emporia	Kansas State Teachers College	Thomas W. Butcher
Hays	Kansas State Teachers College	W. A. Lewis
Pittsburg	Kansas State Teachers College	W. A. Brandenburg
Wichita	College of Education, University of Wichita	Leslie B. Sipple, Dean
Kentucky		
Bowling Green	Western Kentucky State Teachers College	H. H. Cherry
Louisville	Louisville Normal School	Elizabeth Breckinridge, Principal
Morehead	Morehead State Normal School and Teachers College	J. Howard Payne
Murray	Murray State Teachers College	Rainey T. Wells
Richmond	Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College	H. L. Donovan
Louisiana		
Lafayette	College of Education, Southwestern Louisiana Institute	J. M. Smith, Dean
Natchitoches	Louisiana State Normal College	W. W. Tison
Maine		
Farmington	State Normal School	W. G. Mallett, Principal
Gorham	State Normal School	Walter E. Russell, Principal
Maryland		
Frostburg	Maryland State Normal School	J. L. Dunkle
Towson	Maryland State Normal School	Lida Lee Tall, Principal

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* Deceased.

Massachusetts		
Boston	Teachers College of the City of Boston	Wm. H. J. Kennedy, Principal
Bridgewater	State Normal School	Arthur Boyden, Principal
Salem	State Normal School	J. A. Pitman, Principal
Michigan		
Detroit	Detroit Teachers College	Warren E. Bow, Dean
Kalamazoo	Western State Teachers College	D. B. Waldo
Marquette	Northern State Teachers College	J. M. Munson
Mt. Pleasant	Central State Teachers College	E. C. Warriner
Ypsilanti	Michigan State Normal College	Charles McKenny
Minnesota		
Bemidji	State Teachers College	M. W. Deputy
Duluth	State Teachers College	E. W. Bohannon
Mankato	State Teachers College	C. H. Cooper
Moorhead	State Teachers College	R. B. MacLean
St. Cloud	State Teachers College	Geo. A. Selke
Winona	State Teachers College	G. E. Maxwell
Mississippi		
Cleveland	Mississippi Delta State Teachers College	W. M. Kethley
Hattiesburg	State Teachers College	Claude Bennett
Missouri		
Cape Girardeau	Southeast Missouri State Teachers College	Joseph A. Serena
Kansas City	Teachers College of Kansas City	G. W. Diemer
Kirksville	Northeast Missouri State Teachers College	Eugene Fair
Maryville	Northwest Missouri State Teachers College	Uel W. Lamkin
St. Louis	Harris Teachers College	J. L. Purdom, Principal
Springfield	Southwest Missouri State Teachers College	Roy Ellis
Warrensburg	Central Missouri State Teachers College	E. L. Hendricks
Montana		
Dillon	State Normal College	Sheldon E. Davis
Nebraska		
Chadron	Nebraska State Normal College	Robert I. Elliott
Kearney	Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College	George E. Martin
Peru	State Normal School and Teachers College	W. R. Pate
Wayne	State Normal School and Teachers College	U. S. Conn
New Hampshire		
Keene	State Normal School	Wallace E. Mason
Plymouth	State Normal School	Ernest L. Silver
New Jersey		
Newark	New Jersey State Normal School	M. Ernest Townsend
Trenton	New Jersey State Normal School	Don C. Bliss
Upper Montclair	State Teachers College	H. A. Sprague
New Mexico		
Las Vegas	New Mexico Normal University	Frank Carroon
Silver City	New Mexico State Teachers College	A. O. Bowden
New York		
Albany	New York State Teachers College	A. R. Brubacher
Brockport	State Normal School	A. C. Thompson, Principal
Buffalo	State Teachers College	Harry W. Rockwell
Fredonia	State Normal School	Hermann Cooper, Principal
Geneseo	State Normal School	W. A. Holcomb, Principal
New Paltz	State Normal School	L. H. van den Berg, Principal
New York City	Teachers College, Columbia University	Wm. F. Russell, Dean
New York City	School of Education, New York University	John W. Withers, Dean
Oswego	State Normal School	J. G. Riggs, Principal
North Carolina		
Boone	Appalachian State Normal School	B. B. Daugherty
Cullowhee	Western Carolina Teachers College	H. T. Hunter
Greenville	East Carolina State Teachers College	Robert H. Wright
Winston-Salem	Winston-Salem Teachers College	S. G. Atkins
North Dakota		
Dickinson	State Normal School	Conrad L. Kjerstad
Ellendale	State Normal and Industrial School	R. M. Black
Mayville	State Teachers College	C. C. Swain
Minot	State Teachers College	Geo. McFarland
Valley City	State Teachers College	C. E. Allen
Ohio		
Ada	College of Education, Ohio Northern University	Frank L. Loy, Dean
Akron	Teachers College, University of Akron	W. J. Bankes, Dean
Athens	College of Education, Ohio University	Thomas C. McCracken, Dean
Bowling Green	State Normal College	H. B. Williams
Cincinnati	College of Education, University of Cincinnati	L. A. Pechstein, Dean
Cleveland	School of Education, Western Reserve University	Charles W. Hunt, Dean
Columbus	Columbus Normal School	Vance M. Smith, Principal
Dayton	Dayton Junior Teachers College	Maude J. Slaght, Principal
Kent	Kent State College	J. O. Engleman
Oberlin	Oberlin Kindergarten-Primary Training School	Clara May, Principal
Oxford	School of Education, Miami University	E. J. Ashbaugh, Dean

Oklahoma

Ada	East Central State Teachers College	A. Linscheid
Alva	Northwestern State Teachers College	W. W. Parker
Durant	Southeastern State Teachers College	Eugene S. Briggs
Edmond	Central State Teachers College	John G. Mitchell
Tahlequah	Northeastern State Teachers College	M. P. Hammond
Weatherford	Southwestern State Teachers College	E. E. Brown

Oregon

Monmouth	Oregon Normal School	J. S. Landers

Pennsylvania

Bloomsburg	State Teachers College	Francis B. Haas
California	State Normal School	Robert M. Steele
Clarion	Clarion State Normal School	G. C. L. Riemer
East Stroudsburg	State Teachers College	T. T. Allen
Edinboro	State Teachers College	C. C. Crawford
Indiana	State Teachers College	C. R. Foster
Kutztown	State Teachers College	A. C. Rothermel
Lock Haven	State Teachers College	Dallas W. Armstrong
Mansfield	State Teachers College	W. R. Straughn
Millersville	State Teachers College	Landis Tanger
Pittsburgh	School of Education, Duquesne University	Raymond V. Kirk, Dean
Shippensburg	State Teachers College	Ezra Lehman
Slippery Rock	State Teachers College	J. L. Eisenberg
West Chester	State Teachers College	Norman W. Cameron

Rhode Island

Providence	Rhode Island College of Education	J. L. Alger

South Carolina

Rock Hill	Winthrop College	James P. Kinard

South Dakota

Aberdeen	Northern Normal and Industrial School	David Allen Anderson
Madison	Eastern State Normal School	E. C. Higbie
Spearfish	State Normal School	E. C. Woodburn
Springfield	Southern State Normal School	C. G. Lawrence

Tennessee

Johnson City	East Tennessee State Teachers College	C. C. Sherrod
Memphis	West Tennessee State Teachers College	J. W. Brister
Murfreesboro	Middle Tennessee State Teachers College	P. A. Lyon
Nashville	George Peabody College for Teachers	Bruce Payne

Texas

Alpine	Sul Ross State Teachers College	H. W. Morelock
Canyon	West Texas State Teachers College	J. A. Hill
Commerce	East Texas State Teachers College	S. H. Whitley
Denton	North Texas State Teachers College	R. L. Marquis
Huntsville	Sam Houston State Teachers College	H. F. Estill
Kingsville	Texas College of Arts & Industries	R. B. Cousins
Nacogdoches	Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College	A. W. Birdwell
San Marcos	Southwest Texas State Teachers College	C. E. Evans

Utah

Salt Lake City	School of Education, University of Utah	Milton Bennion, Dean

Virginia

East Radford	State Teachers College	J. P. McConnell
Farmville	State Teachers College	J. L. Jarman
Fredericksburg	State Teachers College	M. L. Combs
Harrisonburg	State Teachers College	Samuel P. Duke

Washington

Bellingham	Washington State Normal School	C. H. Fisher
Cheney	Washington State Normal School	R. T. Hargreaves
Ellensburg	Washington State Normal School	George H. Black

West Virginia

Athens	Concord State Normal School	J. F. Marsh
Fairmont	Fairmont State Normal School	Joseph Rosier
Huntington	Marshall College	M. P. Shawkey
Shepherdstown	Shepherd College State Normal School	W. H. S. White
West Liberty	West Liberty State Normal School	J. S. Bonar

Wisconsin

Eau Claire	State Teachers College	H. A. Schofield
La Crosse	State Teachers College	G. M. Snodgrass
Menomonie	The Stout Institute	B. E. Nelson
Milwaukee	State Teachers College	Frank E. Baker
Oshkosh	State Teachers College	H. A. Brown
Platteville	State Teachers College	A. M. Royce
River Falls	State Teachers College	J. H. Ames
Stevens Point	Central State Teachers College	R. D. Baldwin
Superior	Superior State Teachers College	A. D. S. Gillett
Whitewater	State Teachers College	F. S. Hyer

Department of Visual Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION was organized at the Oakland-San Francisco meeting in July, 1923. See *Proceedings*, 1923:85-A. The officers of this Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, W. W. Whittinghill, Director, Visual Education Department, Public Schools, 9345 Lawton Avenue, Detroit, Mich.; *Vicepresident*, Charles Roach, Director, Visual Education Department, Public Schools, 615 Braun Building, Los Angeles, Calif.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Grace Fisher Ramsey, Associate Curator, Department of Public Education, American Museum of Natural History, New York, N. Y.; *Executive Committee*, Anna V. Dorris, Director of Visual Instruction, State Teachers College, San Francisco, Calif.; B. A. Aughinbaugh, State Supervisor of Visual Instruction, Columbus, Ohio; H. W. Norman, Chief, Bureau of Visual Instruction, Extension Division, University of Indiana, Bloomington, Ind. This Department meets once each year, in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1923:85-A
1924:963-985
1925:864-871
1926:947-963
1927:951-970
1928:949-970
1929:937-944

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH AND GUIDANCE

DANIEL G. KNOWLTON, FIELDSTON SCHOOL, NEW YORK, N. Y., *Chairman*

WHEN THIS Department made arrangements for this Committee two years ago it was felt that the greatest need throughout the country in the field of visual instruction was a comprehensive program framed on the basis of results already accomplished and formulated so as to serve as a guide for further achievement. It has been clear for some time that unless such an appraisal is made, properly sponsored, and given wide publicity, much confusion and much wasted effort will be likely to accompany the launching of new visual programs and the extension of those already in operation. It is very clear that there has been much of this in the past. Much of the work has been in the dark—as is so often true of much of the pioneering in any field—and the second step has too often been taken before the first. The actual testing of visual aids and visual methods has not kept pace with the appearance of new forms and the perfection of the older visual aids. Curious misapprehensions have arisen in the very quarter where the success of instruction really hinges—namely, with the teachers themselves—as to certain aids having become antiquated and replaced by newer forms. Visual education just now is conceived altogether in many quarters in terms of the motion picture; and if the leaders are not careful it will speedily be envisaged as a talkie program. There is much hesitation on the part of those intrusted with the expenditure of school funds as to where to make their investments. Their hesitancy is reflected often in the materials which commercial companies offer as a part of the school equipment. It is a vicious circle which results in retardation of a movement which is full of meaning for the instructional practises of the school. Influenced by the launching of the Eastman experiment with the motion picture and the serious effort made under the auspices of Yale University to evaluate the educational motion picture as applied to history, the Committee on Research and Guidance came into being at the Minneapolis meeting. This committee was not only expected to appraise the situation in terms of further research needed, but in terms of actual practises which looked toward changing methods and an enlarged program of visual activities. The two are more or less interrelated. It will always be true that the research work will be confined to the few, but the very fact that the few investigations already brought to completion have pointed to such great possibilities in the field is indicative of the close relationship between investigation and school practise. If administrators are waiting on evidence for the launching of effective programs they are no longer lacking evidence of a certain kind. But, as has already been noted, this evidence has not kept pace with the materials available. It is hoped and expected that with the revelation of increasing interest in visual instruction and the work already accomplished, there will be added incentive for research workers to carry their investigations back into aspects of visual instruction which are almost fundamental to the greatest success of visual materials and visual methods. It is hoped that the work of this Committee will prove such a stimulus and will go far toward clarifying many of the problems which confront the worker. So much on the research side.

It was expected by this time that the Committee would be ready to report. However, certain conditions arose at the same time as the appointment of this committee, and others have developed since, which have made it seem wise to defer action. A representative committee has been appointed consisting of outstanding leaders from all parts of the country. This Committee as a whole has not, however, been asked to formulate a method of procedure to satisfy the objetcives sought by the committee. The reason for this will appear presently. At the Cleveland meeting of the Department of Superintendence Dr. F. Dean McClusky reported the results of an extensive survery made of the field a few years before which had never been given publicity. This proved of such value and significance that it was proposed to bring this to date as far as possible and to make it available to those interested. It seemed a wise economy of time and effort to gather up the loose ends of this report of six years before in view of the pertinence of much of the data covered. Dr. McClusky, who is also a member of the Committee on Research, arranged to do this with the backing of the National Academy and this Department. The results of his work will soon be before you. The chairman of the present Committee also learned of the survey being made by the Department of Commerce for the benefit of those engaged in the production of motion pictures for educational use. It seemed advisable to step aside for the time being until these surveys were completed in order that we might not duplicate effort but might instead have the benefit of whatever results these two surveys might reveal. The survey once undertaken can be completed quickly if the necessary funds are forthcoming as there is every reason to expect that they will be. The officers of the National Education Association have expressed their interest and promised support. Even though final arrangements have not been made with them to take hold vigorously in the matter of collecting the necessary statistics this has been due rather to a failure to press the point on account of the postponement of the enterprise as indicated earlier. It is the hope and expectation that, with this work properly projected, a bulletin will be published by the National Education Association which will go far toward conserving what is best in present practise and provide the necessary vision for further attainments. Such in brief are the plans of the Committee and its activities to date.

PROGRESS OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1923 TO 1930

FREDERICK DEAN MCCLUSKY, DIRECTOR OF THE SCARBOROUGH SCHOOL, SCARBOROUGH, N. Y.

Teaching with pictures has come to be an accepted procedure in the modern school. In the larger cities visual instruction has become so important that it has been necessary for public school officials to organize and to equip separate bureaus with the paraphernalia necessary (1) to house the visual materials, (2) to catalog them as is done in a wellorganized library, and (3) to provide a means of transporting these effective instructional aids to and from the schools of the city. These bureaus or departments of visual instruction have recently been the object of a survey conducted under the auspices of the National Academy of Visual Instruction.

The study has disclosed the fact that over three million dollars have been spent for visual education during the past seven years by the public school bureaus in fourteen of the largest cities in the United States. During the school year 1922-23 the annual expenditure in these fourteen cities was three hundred seventy thousand dollars. This sum has increased annually so that over six hundred thousand dollars had been expended when the school year 1929-30 came to a close. The cities included in the study were New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, Pittsburgh, St. Louis, Cleveland, Kansas City, Buffalo, Atlanta, Newark, Oakland, Reading, and Berkeley.

The survey also included the visual instruction activities in twenty smaller cities where the work is not so highly organized. The public schools in the twenty cities have spent a half million dollars during the past seven years and will have expended one hundred twenty-two thousand dollars during the current school year. It was also found that twenty-three state bureaus of visual instruction, located for the most part in the state universities, have made an investment of one million five hundred thousand dollars during the seven year period. The state bureaus have spent from one hundred ninety thousand to two hundred seventy thousand dollars annually.

The sum total of expenditures for visual instruction in the public schools of thirty-four cities and twenty-three states during the period from 1923 to 1930 was over five million dollars. Since this figure includes only the work of organized bureaus or departments of visual instruction and does not include the expenditures of many state and city museums which conduct school service departments of individual schools, within the large city school system, and of schools in the thousands of smaller towns and rural districts which have invested in visual instruction equipment, one cannot fail to be impressed with the sound progress which has been made in visual education during the past seven years.

The way in which this money is being spent in the large cities is of interest. The salaries of those employed in the bureaus account for fifty-one percent. Another thirty-eight percent goes to the purchase of new materials such as motion pictures, stereoptican slides, projection apparatus, stereographs, and exhibits. Operating expenses take the remainder. The bureaus in the larger cities have accumulated equipment valued at one million four hundred thousand dollars. In the smaller cities the collections are valued at three hundred thousand dollars. The state bureaus own six hundred thousand dollars worth of materials and equipment. While much of this material is semi-permanent—films wear out, slides break, stuffed birds become moth-eaten—the point is that the bureaus are fast becoming vast museums of great value and of educational importance.

Pittsburgh, Los Angeles, Detroit, and St. Louis are outstanding in the work of visual education. Their budgets this year called for expenditures ranging from sixty thousand to one hundred ten thousand dollars. In Pittsburgh, Los Angeles, and Kansas City the teacher-training institutions require all students to take courses and to pass examinations in visual instruction before graduation. Courses in visual education are now offered in seventy-one state normal schools, colleges, and universities.

In view of the interest in these new instructional materials, a number of studies have been made since 1922 for the purpose of testing the effectiveness of visual lessons. Weber, Freeman, McClusky, Knowlton, Tilton, and Wood have conducted extensive investigations. These studies show that visual materials are of distinct value in laying a foundation of concrete experience as a basis for thinking. Some studies demonstrated the fallacy of the assumption that pictures alone teach without correlative material. Other studies showed gains for the visually aided lesson of from fifteen to nineteen percent over the unaided lesson. Motion pictures have been shown to be effective in teaching science, geography, history, surgery, and athletics. The stereopticon slide is particularly adapted to analytical study by the class, while the stereograph and the photograph permit the individual to make detailed examination and analyses.

No one can predict what effect sound pictures will have on the future of visual instruction. Many attempts are being made to introduce the sound picture into the educational field. The important thing is to produce good instructional pictures. When this is done the schools will want them. But in the meantime our schools will use illustrated books, photographs, lantern slides, stereographs, models, and the other cheaper forms of visualization with increasing effectiveness and in large amounts. The facts show that the movement to visualize instruction is coming into its own.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION

ELLSWORTH C. DENT, SECRETARY OF THE BUREAU OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION,
UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION, UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS,
LAWRENCE, KANS.

Not long ago, those who were working in the rather new field of visual instruction were concerned largely with excursions, exhibits, flat pictures, stereographs, and glass slides. Then the motion picture came along, heralded as a panacea for all instructional weaknesses and as a probable successor to honest study of the printed page. The predictions proved to be slightly in error, so a few of the more levelheaded users of visual materials began to experiment with various methods of presentation. We are still experimenting. We have learned certain things, but one very pleasant aspect of our work is that we are continually faced with new problems and new developments. Our field is becoming more and more complicated. The colored motion picture, the 16-mm. motion picture, the film slide, the "Stillfilm," the synchronized disc, the motion picture with sound-on-film, the colored, stereoscopic motion picture with synchronized sound, and possibly television have commanded attention and bid fair to require careful consideration in the future. The radio and the phonograph, which would hardly seem to be classified as *visual* aids, may become important attributes to teaching with pictures.

These complications in the field cause us to realize that it is becoming exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, for any one person to know all there is to know about the various types of visual aids and their uses. This means that we must call upon others for reports, suggestions, opinions, and recommendations. We can do this individually and independently, of course, if time and expense are of no concern. However, the American method for securing this assistance is to do so through appropriate organizations, where those who have common interests and varied experiences may meet to compare notes.

At present, there are two national organizations which are providing opportunity for discussion and comparison of common problems: the Department of Visual Instruction of the National Education Association and the National Academy of Visual Instruction. You have been or will be told of the work of the former and it becomes my privilege to tell you something of the Academy.

History—The Academy had its beginning in a conference of forty to fifty educators at Cleveland, Ohio, in February, 1920, at the time of the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. An enthusiastic and deliberate conference resulted in the appointment of a committee of nine, which was empowered to take the necessary preliminary steps in organizing a national association. This committee met at the University of Michigan in April of 1920, drew up a constitution and bylaws, and completed an organization which was named the National Academy of Visual Instruction. A meeting of the Academy has been held each year since. The present plan is that it shall be held concurrently with the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

Membership in the Academy has varied from year to year, ranging all the way from two hundred to three hundred. At present, there are approximately 150 active, 30 associate, 4 contributing, and 10 institutional members, representing in all about 270 visual instruction workers.

There are five types or groups or classifications of members:

1. *Active membership* includes those who are engaged in educational, semi-educational, or welfare work, and who are actual users or who may be directing the use of visual aids. This includes teachers, school executives, directors of visual instruction in state departments of visual instruction, extension divisions, private or public school systems, museum workers, ministers, and those in the educational departments or divisions of industrial organizations.

2. *Associate membership* is open to those who are not eligible to become active members but who may wish to become affiliated with the Academy. Associate mem-

bers may attend the regular meetings of the Academy, with the exception of executive sessions, and shall be accorded the usual privileges of such membership. They shall receive copies of all printed bulletins, announcements, or other publications of the Academy which shall be available for general distribution.

3. *Institutional membership* is offered to university extension divisions; university, college, state, city, or county bureaus or departments of visual instruction; colleges; libraries; museums; and other welfare organizations which are in sympathy with the plans and ideals of the Academy. They shall receive copies of all publications of the Academy and such clearinghouse service as may be developed and maintained. Problems submitted by such members will be given consideration and every possible assistance in their solution will be rendered. Those employed on the staff of such members will be eligible to attend all regular meetings of the Academy.

4. *Contributing membership* is provided for those organizations which or individuals who are engaged in the production and distribution or sale of materials and equipment for visual instruction, and who may be in sympathy with the aims and purposes of the Academy. Those who may be on the educational staff of a contributing member shall have the privilege of attending and participating in the regular meetings of the Academy. Contributing members shall receive copies of all printed bulletins and announcements of general interest which may be published by the Academy. Perhaps the chief service to contributing members will be the directory service, which has been resumed and which will be continued from year to year.

5. *Life membership* is open to all those who would be eligible to become active members. This type of membership is offered for the purpose of developing a trust fund or endowment, the income from which may be used for the purpose of prosecuting research and publishing reports.

Schedule of fees—The schedule of fees which governs the various types of membership is as follows:

Active Membership	$3.00
Associate Membership	2.50
Institutional Membership	15.00
Contributing Membership	25.00
Life Membership	50.00

The dues are annual, with the exception of the fee for life membership, which may be paid in five annual instalments of $10 each. Active, associate, and institutional members receive, without charge, subscription to "The Educational Screen."

General aims—The Academy is not engaged in promoting visual instruction commercially. Although the control of the Academy is vested largely in the active membership, there are opportunities afforded for the affiliation and participation of those who may be interested chiefly in the commercial aspects of the field.

As stated in the Constitution of the Academy

> "the purpose of the association is to establish and maintain an organization through which schools and other educational institutions, churches, parent-teacher associations, clubs, welfare organizations, and societies engaged in educational or semi-educational work may cooperate in furthering better production and a more systematic and intelligent use of visual aids, such as lantern slides, motion pictures, charts, art collections, exhibits, etc.; to prosecute research in visual instruction methods; to investigate sources of supply; to establish a clearinghouse of information; to work out standards of method and practise; and to promote the knowledge

and use of existing visual aids as well as those which may be developed in the future."

Future plans—The general aims mentioned above comprise a rather large order. It is hardly necessary to state that the Academy has not achieved all these; it is not expected that all shall be accomplished at any time in the future. It is expected that the Academy shall continue to work toward these aims and ideals. Past accomplishments and future achievements may be attributed almost entirely to those who have or who shall support the work of the Academy by becoming members and by reporting the results of experiments in the use of visual aids.

A central office has been established and it is hoped that this office will be able to give prompt attention to all inquiries which may be directed to the Academy. This office shall handle the publication of reports and studies which may be available for distribution. A visual instruction directory, which is not entirely complete but which includes the names and addresses of approximately 1000 leading workers in the field, was published about a month ago. It is expected that this directory will be issued annually and that it shall be enlarged and corrected from year to year.

The Academy needs a regular publication. The Educational Screen has been quite generous in giving us the use of space for such announcements as have been of general interest and it has published a number of the papers which were read at the annual meetings. However, the Academy needs to establish more and more permanent connections than it has at present and it would seem that this could be accomplished more effectively through a regular publication than by any other method.

It is hoped that the National Academy of Visual Instruction may become as important to the user or director of visual aids as the American Medical Association is to the physician; as inclusive in its membership as the National Education Association—for all modern teachers are using visual aids in some form—and so active that an entire office building will be needed to provide adequate working space.

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR CREATIVE LEARNING AS A VITAL VALUE IN VISUAL INSTRUCTION—ABSTRACT

JAMES G. SIGMAN, DIRECTOR OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

In discussing this topic Mr. Sigman presented the following outline of Standards of the Division of Visual Education of the Philadelphia public schools:

Revised Standard Equipment for Visual Education

I. Senior High and Normal Schools

A. *Projectors and screens*

1. One standard 35 mm. motion picture machine, with standard booth equipment and Superlite screen 12′ x 16′ for auditorium use.

   2. One classroom (16 mm.) projector with metal table, and 6′ x 6′ portable classroom screen for general school use.
   3. Three opaque projectors with fan and slide attachments, and three translucent screens, as follows: Art department, science department, general school use.
   4. One balopticon lantern, model BTD, for departmental use.
   5. One film lantern for departmental use.

B. *Draperies and dark shades*
   1. Draperies for auditorium windows and doors.
   2. Dark shades for classroom projection (one room in each department supplied in addition to any specially equipped visual laboratory in any school).

C. *Outlets*
   1. Two outlets in each room in the new schools (front and rear walls).
   2. One outlet in each room having dark shades in the older schools (and also in any designated visual laboratory in any school).
   3. Outlets placed in auditorium part way down center aisle and in orchestra pit.

II. **Junior High and Vocational Schools**—Same as Senior High and Normal Schools (except item 3) which is changed to read: One opaque projector with fan and slide attachment, and one translucent screen.

III. **Elementary Schools**

A. *Projectors and screens*
   1. One classroom (16 mm.) projector with portable classroom screen 6′ x 6′.
   2. One balopticon lantern, model BTD, with stillfilm attachment.
   3. Canvas roller screen 9′ x 12′ (List B—Line Number 6137) for small auditorium, recreation room, or combination of classrooms.

B. *Dark shades or draperies*
   1. For auditorium, recreation room, or combination of classrooms for mass assembly.
   2. Dark shades supplied for two classrooms on each floor, and the special visual room when fitted out in basement or elsewhere.

C. *Outlets*
   1. Two outlets in each room (front and rear walls) for new buildings.
   2. Two outlets to every floor in older buildings, preferable in rooms equipped with dark shades.
   3. Outlets in special visual room whenever equipped in basement or elsewhere.
   4. Outlets in recreation room or auditorium (wherever building contains same) part way down center aisle and at left of stage.

TRAINING TEACHERS TO RECOGNIZE VITAL VALUES IN EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

HERBERT L. SPENCER, PRINCIPAL, HENRY CLAY FRICK TRAINING SCHOOL
FOR TEACHERS, PITTSBURGH, PA.

Factual content—A very complete outline of the factual content for a course in visual education is found in a monograph titled "A Summary of the Technics of Visual and Other Sensory Aids for Teachers in Service and Teachers in Training." This report was prepared by Dr. Hoban, Director of Visual Education, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. A summary of these facts obtained from Dr. Hoban's monograph and from other sources is used as the basis of a course given at the Henry Clay Frick Training School for Teachers in Pittsburgh, and is considered the minimum essentials which nearly all elementary teachers should know. These are as follows:

1. Visual education is not a separate subject, but an effective means or method of instruction which can be successfully applied to nearly all subjects whether it be reading, writing, arithmetic, or some other subject. While the training of teachers in visual and other sensory aids will be accomplished by a special methods course in the use of these technics, it is highly desirable that these technics be included as part of the special methods courses; i. e., methods in teaching reading, history, science, and nature study, etc. Teachers must recognize that visual and other sensory aids are vital to the successful teaching of practically every subject in the curriculum because they furnish the concrete elements necessary to a complete understanding and recognition of vital values in the material composing the school curriculum.

The progressive teacher of mathematics today uses graphs, slides, objects, and models to demonstrate and explain many of the mathematical concepts. The whole field of intuitive geometry is developed by use of models, specimens, and diagrams. The geography teacher makes great use of maps, globes, charts, and specimens. He also uses slides and motion pictures to bring far away phenomena to his pupils. Great use of many of the new films and slides on geography, nature study, and history is being made in our schools today. Reading, spelling, and other academic subjects are motivated by the use of slides and other sensory material. Surely it is the duty of our teacher-training institutions to include in their program of studies special methods courses in the use of visual material.

2. Teachers should recognize that visual and other sensory aids have played a major part in the successful educational systems of the past. The use of pictures by the early Indians, the Greeks, the early Egyptians, and even by the cavemen in primitive times are examples.

3. Teachers should know that sensory experience is the foundation of intellectual activity and that from fifty percent to eighty percent of these experiences come through the eyes. Very few teachers are gifted with the ability of making word pictures realistic. And yet, it is the realistic and concrete that children are interested in, and not the abstract and symbolic. It is necessary that the oral, written, or printed page be translated into a mental image before it means much to the child. Comenius made use of illustrations in the seventeenth century to visualize subjectmatter in his Orbis Pictus. Pestalozzi used the school journey or field trip for observation, and Froebel stressed sensory instruction, particularly through sight and touch. Today, great use is made of the stereograph, the glass and film slide, and the motion pictures. In the future, we will probably see the colored

movies, the sound movy, and the stereograph movies used as a common method of classroom instruction.

4. Teachers must also recognize that verbalism is probably the major weakness in most classroom situations. This weakness in teaching can be remedied by proper use of visual material.

5. Teachers should recognize the values of visual aids not only in teaching but in their services to other agencies. Henry Ford realized the value of motion pictures as means of developing better automobile repairmen. When the new Ford A was placed on the market, all dealers and their shop foremen were required to attend a special showing of films which pictured the manufacturing and assembling of the new cars. The United States Government uses visual aids extensively in extending its immigration, Americanization, health, and other work. In the medical profession there are now used many films for the teaching of various technics common to the operating room. Dr. Wholey, Psychiatrist at the University of Pittsburgh, has recently developed an extremely interesting film on multiple personality. Slow motion pictures, stop motion pictures, and animated drawings have been given a permanent place by scientists.

6. Teachers should also recognize that the effective use of visual aids will result in these definite outcomes:

1. That the use of visual aids effects an economy in time in teaching.
2. That the use of visual aids enriches and clarifies instruction.
3. That the use of visual aids develops correct initial impressions.

7. Teachers should know the various types of visual aids and the values of each. They should be acquainted with the results of scientific research, (meager as it is) which show the way to a better understanding of technics applicable to the different types, such as:

1. The school journey or field trip
2. Objects, specimens, models
3. Various types of equipment
4. Pictorial material
5. The exhibit
6. The sand table
7. The pageant

Attitudes—What are the attitudes which a teacher should develop in order to recognize vital values in education? Briefly, the teacher should acquire a scientific attitude toward sensory materials and technics in order that he may determine for himself the relative values of these materials and technics. He must also recognize that while the fundamental principles in teaching change very little, that better and newer methods of presenting the materials of the curriculum are being constantly devised, and he should be ever alert to accept and try these new devices.

Skills—What skills are necessary for the teacher to acquire in order to effectively use the different types of visual material? The progress in the use of visual material is largely dependent upon the supply of teachers trained in the use of visual material. I believe it is the duty of every teacher-training institution to include in its program of studies a course in visual education, in which not only the factual material and attitudes recently discussed are studied, but should include a very practical laboratory course in the actual care and operation of the various devices common to visual education. Each student teacher should be required to conduct a school journey, to demonstrate with objects, specimens, and models, and to make extensive use of various exhibits. He should have practise in the care and operation of glass slides, film strip, and opaque projectors. He should know how to correct such troubles as clouded screen illumination, too small or too large a picture, failure of lamps to light, poor focus, optical system out of alignment, and spectrum colors on margin of screen. He should also know how to operate especially the sixteen millemeter motion picture projector, and in many school systems, it would be advisable for the teacher to be proficient with the thirty-five millemeter projector.

The course should also include the making of lantern slides, especially those on plain and etched glass, and with cellophane. It is also desirable that the teacher know how to take, develop, and finish good pictures and to make photographic lantern slides.

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF THE TEACHING OF SPELLING—ABSTRACT

CLARE ZYVE, PRINCIPAL, FOX MEADOW SCHOOL, SCARSDALE, N. Y.

There are four factors of about equal importance in the method by which spelling words are learned most effectively. The teacher must present them rather than leave the child to study by himself; the words should be used in written context as well as be studied in isolation; there must be teacher directed review instead of homework study or individual review; and the words must be presented by lantern projection rather than on the blackboard by the teacher. Each of these elements is of about equal importance in gaining maximum efficiency in results and when all four are combined there is only about one chance in 180,000 that equally good results will be obtained by the use of a method in which the child studies by himself in entire isolation from context only the words he misses in the initial test.

This method is one which improves results approximately the same amount with good, poor, and average spellers; each of these groups of children missed on a final test about thirty-two percent of the words they had studied over a five week period, and an average of ten percent of the words when they studied them for the same length of time by the method which included the factors given above. With the present tendency to limit the number of words to be taught in the elementary school to the vocabulary needs of children, it seems unwise to consider that this gain through improvement in method means an increase in the number or in the difficulty of the words to be taught. It seems better to consider that it may mean a result from the teaching of words nearer to perfect learning than schools ordinarily attain at present by making possible a reallotment of time to allow for more adequate and systematic reviews.

MUSEUM SERVICE TO EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

CHARLES R. TOOTHAKER, CURATOR, COMMERCIAL MUSEUM, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

There was a time when museums felt that their function in education, as far as it applied to children, was to supplement, amplify, or enrich the school course. In other words, to offer to schools or to children what the museum thought best to give them in the way of knowledge or culture, whether the facts presented or the knowledge imparted did or did not correlate with the school work. There is really much to be said in favor of that point of view.

No course of study outlined by any board of education is ever believed to be perfect by the men and women who plan it. Boys and girls of any age may frequently be interested in subjects which are not at that time taught in the school which they attend. To visit a museum of art, history, or science may wake interests in a boy or a girl which will be in no way detrimental to formal and systematic education but which strongly influences the trend of his or her life and happiness.

We find in the museums of America two separate tendencies in elementary education. One is to correlate strictly with the courses of study in all subjects that the museums touch and in these lines to give all the help that can be given by the aid of specimens and with the knowledge of the specialists on the museum force. The other tendency is to enrich the interests that the children have in life and to help them in the knowledge of subjects which at that particular time are not a part of their own class work. Some museums do both these things but restrict their work entirely to the museum building. Many museums lend specimens or collections of specimens of one kind or another to the schools. A very few museums give illustrative material of some kind to the elementary schools in their city and their state. Still fewer museums sell objects of some kind to the schools or furnish material at cost. A very fair number of museums send lecturers to the schools to teach certain things better than it is thought the same knowledge can be presented by the regular teachers who spend all their time in the schools and are less familiar with museum subjects. Quite a number of museums throughout the country present lectures and lessons, through the agency of teachers, furnished by the board of education but assigned permanently to the museum, working with the rest of the museum force, knowing museum collections and museum material by constant study and daily association and, therefore, being able to give the lessons in the museum as other teachers cannot. This work is so successful in a number of cities that it has been growing rapidly and it seems probable that more and more, special teachers will be employed in museums in this way until the plan becomes widespread throughout the United States.

There is a very general belief that it is best for the museum and best for the schools to lend specimens for a short period and not to give the things to the school permanently. The Philadelphia Commercial Museum is the one striking exception to this rule. More than six thousand collections of commercial products, many of these sets containing several hundred specimens each, accompanied by photographs and other printed matter, have been given free of cost to schools in Pennsylvania by the Commercial Museum and remain permanently in the schools to which they have been sent. The material which the Commercial Museum has furnished is such as truly finds almost daily use in one class or another and the museum has felt forced to leave the collections permanently in the schools because of this constant need and constant use. Probably no other reason could justify the giving of material rather than the lending. While a great deal can be said for the visits of classes to museums and the systematic help on the part of the museum in the actual class work, whether in the classroom or in the museum itself, there are many who believe that individual work with children, not in large groups but singly or with two or three children together, is possibly more important than the handling of pupils of any age in large numbers. It is especially for that reason that many museums employ what are called "docents," (persons who might be termed guides or helpers) for those who wish to know something and visit the museum with the desire to learn, not because the children are brought by their teachers or are sent but because of their own heartfelt interest. It is to such children and to grown people too that many museums give really very wonderful service in education.

A great many museums give systematic courses of lectures to school children on the subjects covered by the exhibits in that particular museum. Often these lectures are during school hours to classes that come with their teachers. This may be said to be characteristic of the Buffalo Society of Natural Sciences, the Philadelphia Commercial Museum, and many of the classes that visit the American Museum of Natural History. Perhaps even more of the lecture work for schools is presented by museums outside of school hours as is done chiefly by the Children's Museum of the United States. Some of the best educational work carried on by museums is given in the shape of actual courses of instruction and may be called "lessons" instead of lectures. Frequently these lessons are presented as a series so that an individual gets not only one lesson but many lessons, systematically presented in the development of one subject. It is in this way that art museums are doing a great deal in teaching art and science museums in teaching natural history. Some museums present these lessons, correlating with the daily class work of the pupils who attend. The Commercial Museum, for example, gives lessons on geographic and industrial subjects, to classes coming with their teachers, the subjects being always those that are at the very time being studied by those pupils in school. More and more museums are feeling that instruction can be given most successfully with the help not only of museum objects or specimens which may be seen but which may also be touched and handled. Practically all the museums carrying on educational work place more and more material in the hands of the students so that their educational work is carried on not only by verbal teaching and by seeing objects in a museum but the pupils own activity is an important factor in the teaching process, and the close examination of specimens is a much more important factor in education today than it ever was in the past.

All these tendencies are pointing to a time when educators will feel that every school must possess its own school museum for teaching purposes just as it possesses its own school library. These school museums will be of a general nature and will do no more in the end than stimulate the younger generation to a proper appreciation of museums in general and their relation to the life of every community.

VISUAL AIDS HELPFUL IN THE WISE USE OF LEISURE—MAKING LIVING A REAL ART—ABSTRACT

BLANCHE MCFARLAND, PRINCIPAL AND SUPERVISOR, ROCKY FORD, COLO.

The old *listening* type of school is in the discard; in its place is coming a *seeing, doing,* type of school, and visual education fits into every phase of such a type of school just as it fits into every phase of life. From the very nature of visual education, it *must* become one of the chief means in the bringing about of these seeing, doing schools.

Leisure is with us. It has come to stay. If one dares to predict anything it would be that there will be still fewer working hours of still fewer working days for more and more people, and with a more highly mechanized routine of life. And so we have a new freedom to which to adjust ourselves. The fulfillment of an age-old longing is ours.

What shall we do with this freedom, this leisure? What shall it mean to the children who are still in the formative stage? How can we meet this challenge so as to build into this period of reconstruction the things that will enable these future citizens whom you and I are helping to mold make *their* living more nearly a real art?

To enjoy and profit by anything we must learn to use it. How shall we use and profit by our leisure? Leisure recreates. It opens up the way for a new and different expression of one's self. As Charles Lamb said, "The time a man may call his own, that is his life."

As a nation, our first reaction has been a mad rush after amusement. We seem to be more gregarious in our playtime than we are in our worktime, and business America, always alert, has seized upon this, capitalized it, and given to us commercialized leisure. By actual estimate, more money is being spent in commercialized leisure than for any other one thing, except food. Some of the more thoughtful are seeing in the prevalence of crime, the let-down standards, the lawlessness, a result of this misuse of leisure time. There are those who are coming to realize that the enemy which most seriously threatens our America the Beautiful is this "uneducated, untrained leisure." There is no pessimism in this—it is merely to get the problem before us. Instead, there are optimism and faith, and there is gladness that *we* can help to solve this problem.

Leisure was meant to be a reciprocal part of life, a compensation, a time of adjustment in which one might re-distribute his powers and do with eagerness and intelligence some thing or things the other hours of his life could not include. It is in such leisure that the best in the individual flowers. Carried over into the work period the fruits of such leisure smooth off the rough edges. One may then dream dreams in his leisure hours, or the vision which his work hours bring may become the reality of his leisure hours.

The ancient Jews, regardless of wealth or station, insisted that every man have a trade. We Americans of today need to make sure that everyone has some definite avocation. Is it too much to ask that, now that the vocational is being given consideration we should turn our attention to the avocational also, not only in our schools, but by establishing special avocational schools where the young and the adult may learn constructive play, creative expression, and selfdevelopment.

Socially the problem is a vital one, and though so large and difficult of approach, it is one that can be dealt with by means of attacking some particular phase within our scope. In many communities, the school, working with the local newspapers, with the service and educational and cultural clubs, with the business men, and through their parent-teacher groups are doing splendid things in the way of popularizing the best from a visual standpoint, and creating a demand for this best.

One small city specializes in window displays. A feature exhibit shows attractive and worthwhile pages of local and the larger daily newspapers, while another feature displays magazines in such a way as to call attention to certain visual phases. Students from the home economics department arrange the display windows of the furniture stores, the grocery stores, and the dry goods stores. Seed and implement stores have boys from the agricultural department arrange certain exhibits. From time to time other exhibits are worked out cooperatively. As this goes on from year to year it is impossible to estimate the uplift of the public taste and the gain in the lives of the young people who do the work.

In a certain city of only a few thousand, the woman's club and the nature study department, with the consent and help of the park board of directors, are building up an abiding interest in trees and shrubs, and in the acquiring of beautiful and rare specimens. Every year certain trees and shrubs are studied by the sixth-grade classes of the city. In the spring, the club and the children have a joint outofdoor program, to which the general public is invited, for the working of the trees studied. The chairman of the park board reports to the supervisor of nature study any new specimen obtained with great pride, and the supervisor is sure of an attentive audience when she goes to talk with him. Through this simple procedure both the adult and the juvenile population of the city are cultivating a love of the outofdoors, and a knowledge of and pride in the arboreal life of their city which ties up directly with a higher type of leisure and of life, and a sensitivity to beauty.

Similar points of attack are the highways, the vacant lots, the windows of vacant store buildings, and many others which an alert eye may single out and use.

A certain state parent-teacher association has for one of its slogans "A better films chairman in every local unit." These chairmen work through the local papers, the various clubs, and other agencies to disseminate knowledge of good motion pictures and to cultivate a discriminating taste. They work with the managers of the picture houses rather than against them as far as they possibly can, and they work directly for visual education in the schools, and with whoever is directing this work.

Truly the social phases of our problem open up a vast and varied line of endeavor, one of such importance that visual instructors and other educators will do well to place more emphasis upon it.

But it is on the spiritual standpoint that I wish to urge that we concentrate as an approach to the answer to our problem. After all, here is the leaven that leaveneth the whole lump, for once our teachers truly catch the vision they can be depended upon to make ways and means for incorporating visual instruction in their work in such a way as to secure the desired results.

First of all, we shall need to remember that the "treasure of each life lies buried in each self, and the finding of that is happiness." But the gateways to the soul are the senses, and of all the senses the one which is more nearly all-embracing is the sense of sight. So our visual aids must be so made, so selected, and so used as to insure the seeing eye.

Seeing, children must be led to understand, to interpret, to relate, to evaluate, to feel. They must come into a realization that they themselves are a part of this great universe, and they must have sculptured in their beings the great pageant of nature, of life, life forces, life expression. They must be given an awareness of the spirit of life which has been characterized as progressive, practical, dynamic, recreative, friendly, cooperative, idealistic.

To accomplish this, the teacher must master the wide range of visual aids, know the value and possibilities of each. He must use them naturally, the particular thing at the specific time and place. He must leave room for the individuality of the child to select from this or that aid the thing that is vital to him, as an individual, as well as the getting of the particular point the teacher may have had in mind. He must provide opportunity for reciprocal effort on the part of the child. Many times the particular aid used will serve as a challenge to the children to *do* something, *make* something, "show you in another way," as I have often heard them say. This is one of the most valuable responses to be striven for. He must keep an open mind and an alert eye to the many uses of visual aids all about him, and give to his students an awareness of this—in business of all kinds, advertising, insurance, etc., in the professions, in civic life, and so on through the long list of life applications. He must teach his students to note the type of visual aid used, its efficiency or the lack of it, and cause the student to think of values and practical features. In the vocational, the teacher has a definite responsibility and a great opportunity—and this is not confined to classes in vocational guidance. Through visual instruction, we can see to it that there are fewer misfits in the vocational world, which will be a great advantage to the individual and to society. He must so direct his efforts that the students have practise in doing for pleasure, in their out-of-school time as well as their in-school time, things growing out of the interests suggested, fostered, exemplified by the use of this or that visual aid.

Thus, we may plant fertile seeds of information in the storehouse of the mind, cultivate these seeds and help them on to fruition. Thus each individual may have stored up in his being a working capital of interests which will develop into ideas and ideals, as well as in practise.

We may lighten every material thing visualized with hope—hope that is a handmaiden to the dreams we make come true, that is able to beget and nurture faith, that finds expression in activity and sustained effort.

MINUTES OF THE SECRETARY

The Department of Visual Instruction held its meetings in the auditorium of the Central High School. The programs presented were as follows:

First Session, Monday, June 30, 2 p. m.

Creative Learning as a Vital Value in Education

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH AND GUIDANCE
Chairman: Daniel G. Knowlton, Fieldston School, New York, N. Y.

PROGRESS OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1923 TO 1929
F. Dean McClusky, Director of Scarborough School, Scarborough, N. Y.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SCHOOL MUSEUM RELATIONS
Chairman: C. G. Rathmann, Asst. Superintendent, Public Schools, St. Louis, Mo.

W. M. Gregory, Director of Educational Museum, Cleveland School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON STATE ADMINISTRATION OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION
C. F. Hoban, Director of Visual Instruction, State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION
Ellsworth C. Dent, Secretary, Bureau of Visual Instruction, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans.

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR CREATIVE LEARNING AS A VITAL VALUE IN VISUAL INSTRUCTION
James G. Sigman, Director of Visual Instruction, Public Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.

Second Session, Tuesday, July 1, 2 p. m.

The Art of Living as a Vital Value in Education

VISUAL AIDS HELPFUL IN THE WISE USE OF LEISURE—MAKING LIVING A REAL ART

Mrs. Blanche B. McFarland, Rocky Ford, Colo.

TRAINING TEACHERS TO RECOGNIZE VITAL VALUES IN EDUCATION

Herbert L. Spencer, Principal, H. C. Frick Training School for Teachers, Pittsburgh, Pa.

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF THE TEACHING OF SPELLING

Mrs. Clare Zyve, Principal, Fox Meadow School, Scarsdale, N. Y.

MUSEUM SERVICE TO EDUCATION

Charles R. Toothaker, Curator Commercial Museum, Philadelphia, Pa.

DISCUSSION

BUSINESS

DEMONSTRATIONS OF RECENT DEVELOPMENTS:

George W. Hoke, Eastman Classroom Films, Rochester, N. Y.
George E. Hamilton, Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pa.

A dinner was held on Monday, June 30, at 6:30 p. m. Addresses were made by William M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.; William H. Dudley, Chicago, Ill.; B. A. Aughinbaugh, state director, visual instruction, Columbus, Ohio.

A breakfast meeting was held on Tuesday, July 1, at 7 a. m., at which a discussion of the topic, "The Enrichment of the School Curriculum and of Adult Life by the Proper Use of Visual Aids," was carried on by leaders in visual education.

Officers elected may be found on page 910.

Department of Vocational Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION was organized as the industrial section at Minneapolis, Minn., 1875. See *Proceedings*, 1875:100. The name was changed in 1890 to the Department of Industrial and Manual Training. See *Proceedings*, 1890:758. In 1899 the name was changed to the Department of Manual Training. See *Proceedings*, 1899: 556. In 1914 the name was changed to the Department of Vocational Training and Practical Arts. See *Proceedings*, 1914:565. This Department cooperates with the National Vocational Guidance Association and with the National Society for Vocational Education.

The officers of this Department for the year 1930-31 are: *President*, Z. M. Smith, State Director of Vocational Education, Indianapolis, Ind.; *Vicepresident*, Ruth Freegard, State Supervisor of Vocational Home Economics, Lansing, Mich.; *Secretary*, O. B. Adams, State Director of Vocational Education, Salem, Oregon. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are to be found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1914:565-625
1915:815-847
1916:461-517
1917:431-473
1918:249-271
1919:271-281
1920:269
1921:851-858
1922-1465-1483
1923:1025-1043
1924:987-1015
1925:872-913
1926:963-996
1927:971-1006
1928:971-1003
1929:945-972

PUBLIC EDUCATION AS AFFECTING THE ADJUSTMENT OF YOUTH TO LIFE—A DISCUSSION OF THE RECENT PUBLICATION OF THE NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD—ABSTRACT

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IN SUMMARIZING the issues of public education it is difficult to distinguish between the essential and the more or less incidental and local. It is the aim of this study to define these issues in a way which will assist in the more perfect analysis of conditions and results that will lead to better methods of scientific research. From this point of view the more basic issues upon which the development of public education in the modern democracy seems to depend may be stated as follows:

1. Is it possible to define the essential aims particularly of adolescent education in terms that are capable of translation into attainable educational policies?
2. Can more exact methods of measuring the accomplishment of public education be devised, and can established standards of testing results be more widely used thus progressively harmonizing advancing standards of accomplishment with aims determined upon?
3. Can there be an arrangement of curriculum and methods of teaching so that the rate of individual progress may be accelerated and made more dependent upon individual ability rather than upon a standardized rate of progress of classes or grades?
4. Should greater attention be paid to the training of the less favored, the mental defectives, and the backward children or to the bright, ambitious children upon whom our future leadership depends?
5. Should opportunity for vocational training both of a general and a specialized type be broadened and developed?
6. Inclusive of all issues and subjects of much discussion in educational literature today is the broad general question of vocational guidance.
7. A fundamental issue is that of providing an adequate number of professional teachers and administrators to conduct the schools.

It has been shown that the vital issues of education arise largely from the state of public opinion as to its purposes, objectives and requirements. These issues find a concrete expression first in the systems of political control and economic support of public schools; second, in the systems of their administration and supervision; third, in the subjectmatter of the courses of study; and fourth, in the measuring of results.

If, therefore, we are to have a valuable and comprehensive survey of public education we must direct our studies of the methods of political control and support, the system of administration and supervision as well as the subjectmatter taught, the teaching technics and methods, and the measurement of results obtained. Only so may we assist in building up a more sound public opinion.

Unquestionably a huge public problem exists which immediately concerns one-fourth of the whole population, which involves expenditures of approximately one-third of the public income from all sources, and which rightly affects the wellbeing and possibilities of future progress in the entire country.

Whether the vital issues are as they have herein been defined or present themselves with different emphasis to others, the fact remains that the existence of doubt and skepticism in regard to our public educational system is seriously retarding our progress as a nation. Areas of public education now most needing research are:

I. General fields of educational research
  A. Measures of accomplishment
    1. The methods of measuring results may not be those hereinafter suggested, but wherever sound bases can be found for the measuring of results, they ought to be applied
  B. The educational requirements of occupational fields
    1. A study of the essential educational requirements of the major vocations of today in terms of both their academic and technical content.
    2. A study of the qualities of character and traits of personality required by the major groups of occupations.
  C. Types of political control and financial support
    1. What types of control can best supervise and administer our public systems of education, and how and in what measure can its financial support best be obtained and distributed?

II. Special fields of educational research
  A. The reappraisal of the values and methods and fields for vocational education
  B. The adjustment of handicapped children: This should cover a study of the outstanding and prevalent difficulties of economic adjustment encountered by these young persons from fourteen to twenty years of age, who are of less than average ability and who at the same time are practically under the necessity of becoming in large part, if not entirely, selfsupporting during these years.
  C. The training of teachers: A study to determine the minimum requirements to be established for the training of teachers of various grades.
  D. Subjectmatter: What is the proper subjectmatter of public education today? What are those mental disciplines and studies that come most vitally within our experience and assist us in adjusting ourselves to life?

MEETING THE EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES IN A MINING DISTRICT—ABSTRACT

C. K. DAVIS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, MIAMI, ARIZ.

The town of Miami, Arizona, has about twelve thousand inhabitants, most of whom are Mexicans, and many cannot speak English. Land is scarce in Miami, and the town is crowded into the bottom and sides of a small canyon. The major industry, activity, and interest is the production of copper. This industry employs more than ninety percent of the employed population; therefore it is evident that any vocational program must be built around this industry and if it is to be successful, must have the support and cooperation of the copper companies.

In general, the educational problem is to train the boys advantageously to enter these companies, to train the girls and women to become successful and efficient homemakers, and to train the men already employed. Specifically, the problem consists in developing an educational cooperation between industry and the public schools. The public schools were willing to cooperate and did not know how; industry was busy with copper, and although interested, did not see how it could be done.

The first step to be made in the district was to make a brief survey. The facts and conditions from industry were obtained by personal interviews with about thirty responsible men in the employ of the companies. Conditions in the public schools were determined by interviews with school officials and by inspection of classes. General town conditions were determined by visits to various stores, garages, and other places of business.

The results showed almost no apprentice system in the service trades of the industry, no organized shop training, and very little systematic schedule of advancement, a history of very casual but highly efficient conference work in improving foremanship, and very little study or attention being given the training of semi-skilled operators in the mines. In the public schools there were two home economics instructors giving approved work to high-school girls, no vocational work of any sort being given to boys, although there were excellent courses offered in non-vocational auto mechanics and woodworking. In the night high-school program, vocational classes were given in the regular technical related subjects to men working in the district.

The interesting and unique part of the Miami plan was to neglect the public school courses for two or three years and concentrate on arousing interest in industry within the industry itself. The local director of vocational education was delegated to study the immediate needs of industry, meet these needs, and later show them the possibilities for vocational training within their own organization.

This plan of action was decided upon after seeing the futile efforts made by some schools in deciding for themselves what courses to offer to prepare boys for employment, only to find out after spending much time and money that they had done the wrong thing.

The night school program in the technical related subjects was strengthened by adding new courses and revamping old ones. Shop courses were started in the various organizations for men that were interested and needed the work. Men who entered these classes were picked by the shop foreman and master mechanics as men the company wanted to hold or advance. Instruction was given on production work as far as possible. Because of the successful attempts in the past in the foremanship conference work, it was decided to start this work and push it aggressively. It is better that the individual conference groups contain men from the same strata of the organization except when the group is working out better or more efficient methods of doing the work, in which case the presence of one or two superiors tends to be stimulating. The subjects chosen for the first series of meeting were of the personnel type and included the following: carelessness on the job, accidents and accident prevention, giving and handling orders, efficient methods of handling men, training men, cooperation, discipline. These meetings should be held on company time to insure the attendance of the men that most need this training.

Within industry a method of production tryout is being developed. Men newly employed are placed on a certain standard job, requiring little or no experience. The tonnage production records of these men will be watched carefully. From previous study, figures have been obtained that indicate the probable ultimate production ability of the men in relation to their initial records. This is a scientific method of choosing men for jobs and eliminates the waste by the old trial method.

An assistant in home economics was employed to handle girls' and women's classes. One-half day is spent in teaching home economics subjects and the other half is used to act as coordinator for employed girls.

You will recall that we planned to start our program from industry, and for the present to make no change in the classes in the public schools. To secure data that would make these classes alive we set up a guidance program. The local director interviews every student in the entire high school, not to tell the student what the director thinks he should take, but to find out what the student expects to follow to earn a living. It is helping rather than steering. While the student is being interviewed the director, by discreet questioning, finds where the older brother or sister is employed and what schooling they have had. In order to stimulate interest in the future the high school has a class in "occupations."

The copper companies are accustomed to hiring mechanics already trained elsewhere. Such positions require men with wide experience. The youth that might be trained in the home shops would probably get a diversified training, but he will not be a production mechanic. The critical and most important factor in the development of the school program is the building of an effective industrial apprentice program. Slow progress is being made in the solution of this problem. About twenty apprentices are employed at present.

Our final plan will be to continue the present manual training courses to act as a feeder-course to day trade classes that may be set up in the high school, (these day trade classes will be used in turn as a feeder to a partime apprentice group employed by the companies and attending high school on a turn about basis) and to continue and expand the present program for those already in employment.

THE SPIRIT OF THE MASTER CRAFTSMAN—ABSTRACT

L. H. DENNIS, DEPUTY SUPERINTENDENT, STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

The man of industry of a half century ago worked through a variety of processes. Frequently he began and finished the object to which his skill was applied. One of the outstanding assets of this type of craftsmanship, now almost a memory, was the sense of pride that came with the completion of a hard task well done. The craftsman looked with satisfaction upon the work of his own hands, the work upon which he had spent so many hours and to which he had given so much thought.

Gradually but irresistibly the engineering skill and ingenuity of man has harnessed the forces of nature and applied the laws of science in an effort to more thoroughly, more perfectly, and more quickly perform the labor which for years man has been wont or compelled to do by hand. The development of the machine age has been accompanied by economic changes which have come too rapidly for society to make easy adjustments to the same. The craftsman of yesterday is a machine tender or operator today. The worker no longer sees the individual parts of the raw product converted under his own manipulation into the beautiful finished product. He is somewhere along the line performing one or a limited number of operations in the chain of operations that goes to make up the assembled whole.

Much has been written and even more said about the loss of pride in workmanship due to the feeding of machines. Criticisms of the modern machine age are plentiful and severe; but when we come to understand better the full effects of the economic and social changes made possible by the machine age, we will probably rejoice rather than grumble.

It is true that thousands have been made idle by the introduction of massive and intricate power driven machinery. While these modern creations of mankind have made unnecessary the work of thousands of hands, other similar inventions have created thousands of new and varied occupational opportunities available to the man who catches the spirit of the new day and who is willing to prepare himself for a new task and a new job.

It should be understood that the machine age has brought luxuries to the average home that were not in the homes of wealth fifty years ago. Silk stockings have already entered the class of necessity. Automobiles, radios, telephones, and hundreds of other conveniences of the machine age are already possessions of the average home.

Gradually but surely the machine age is bringing us a shorter working day and a shorter working week. More hours per day, per week, per year are increasingly available for recreation, travel, and other forms of enjoyment and selfimprovement. There should be less howling in glittering generalities against presentday machine methods. It is better to be thankful that man can make mere iron, steel, steam, and electricity carry some of the burdens that formerly made man prematurely old and broken.

With a better understanding of the conditions of the new day there will gradually but very definitely come the realization that craftsmanship must continue. It will have a new meaning. Perhaps it will be called by a different name. But honest and skillful labor dominated by a desire to do some difficult work well will always be essential and always will we find many men eager and willing to measure up to the opportunities of the day. Thorough knowledge of occupations coupled with necessary skills will always be needed and will always be provided. The new craftsman like the old involves this knowledge and skill even though the process of application may be vastly different.

Mere money making has never been and never will be the chief aim of vocational training. To learn to do one's work so well that there may be the possibility and even the probability of larger financial returns wherewith to meet the many demands for the necessities and luxuries of life for one's self and for those dependent upon one, is an objective not to be condemned. Vocational education to be effective must make one better able to meet life's needs, but the true spirit and purpose of vocational training is the stimulation of the craftsman to be master craftsman. Vocational training is specific. It is direct. It is purposeful. It aims to help those whom it serves to meet more satisfactorily the exigencies of occupational adjustment, but above and beyond all this, vocational training strives to inculcate in the mind and in the heart of the would be craftsman that spirit which eventually produces the master craftsman.

It is entirely within the province and possibilities of vocational training to assist the rank and file to set up definite and specific occupational objectives, to create a vision of greater possibilities of service, and to stimulate an enthusiasm for a finer conception and quality of craftsmanship. Vocational training is dedicated to the craftsmanship of today and to the preservation and development of the spirit of the master craftsman.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING AS A PART OF A CITY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM—ABSTRACT

B. W. HARTLEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS

Although vocational training has secured its place as a major function in public education, the opposition has not been silenced. The management still has many questions to answer and many difficult problems to solve. The defenders of liberal education are still holding thumbs down, while the evangelists of vocational training retort with their thumbs in a less classical gesture.

The quarrel is idle, for liberal education and vocational training are indispensable and inseparable. They are fundamental to good citizenship, which is the State's reason for establishing public education—"to secure the rights and liberties of the people." Men will support their government when they have jobs and opportunities for recreation. Deny these opportunities and a national catastrophe will be the harvest. Earning makes better citizens than yearning. The curse of Adam clings to us, while the memory of Eden lingers on. The eternal rhythm of life is toil and leisure, work and play, pain and pleasure. A balanced educational program improves man's wants and his ability to earn them; gives him a liberal education and a practical one; develops his individual culture and makes him socially efficient. Life is practical; education must be efficient. Life is recreational, and education must train for leisure and for ever nobler living.

Vocational training must furnish equal opportunity by keeping the door open to all occupations; this is American. Graduation into each vocation must be competitive; this is equally American! The demand must not be oversupplied and the unfit must not be chosen. Any other policy means gigantic national waste. Secondary education is wasteful because its curriculum leads to professional careers for which only a few of our students will qualify. The white collar as a symbol of leisure and respectability is a cultural lag. It no longer insures leisure and has no right to represent respectability. Students who fail to perform in the upper five percent needed for the learned professions must be gently but firmly guided into other curriculums to avoid further waste of their time and the state's money.

Vocational training must study the shifting demand for workers. We have passed through fifty years of tremendous readjustment in occupational groupings. Agricultural workers shrank from forty-four percent to twenty-six percent of all persons gainfully employed. Manufacturing and mechanical pursuits recruited 9,000,000 workers, a gain of 300 percent, and took first place from agriculture. Trade and transportation increased in identical proportions. Only the professions maintained a stationary ratio. Vocational education can help reduce unemployment by not over-supplying, and by retraining workers whom the iron man fires.

The change in distribution of workers is slowing up. Probably in a few more decades the proportion of workers in the general divisions and the major sub-divisions will become practically fixed, and there will be jobs for all. There is ample evidence that scientific management *can* solve unemployment—general and technological—*and it must.*

Then education will be relieved of the worry over an uncertain market and will settle down to the more definite task of sorting for comparatively standardized demands, and of developing vocational efficiency.

THE SHOP TEACHER AS A COUNSELOR—ABSTRACT

EDWIN A. LEE, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION AND DIRECTOR OF DIVISION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, CALIF.

The first essential to an effective program of vocational education is a group of trainees who have intelligently chosen to prepare themselves for the occupation for which they are in training. Likewise the first essential for a guidance program is that it shall be linked with the reality which resides in the total problem of vocational adjustment. The two programs are interdependent and interwoven.

From this point of view we are just beginning to discover the strategic importance of the shop teacher as a counselor. The guidance function which the shop teacher is by training and experience best qualified to discharge is that of giving advice concerning his own occupation. Presumably he is an outstanding craftsman in his community. Certainly he knows more about the trade he represents than any other member of the teaching staff.

A second function of the shop teacher may be designated as cooperation. There are at least three ways in which such cooperation may take place. In the first place, although he is the expert concerning his own trade and ought to do the final counseling with boys interested in his trade, there is great need for the whole counseling staff to know as much as possible about the occupation he represents. He is the logical person to furnish that information. Closely related is the opportunity presented to the shop teacher to cooperate in the preparation of printed material dealing with his trade. A pamphlet setting forth in simple, concise form the essential facts concerning the painter's trade is planned by the counseling division. Who better than the instructor in painting can give the essential material needed for such a pamphlet, or who can better smooth the way to the inner councils of the painter's union and the master painter's association if the investigators need information he does not possess? Out of this grows the third cooperative function, that of participating in occupational surveys for vocational guidance purposes. If the shop teacher be trained in the technic of such investigation, he becomes an invaluable factor in the assembling of adequate and accurate information concerning his own and related occupations.

The third function is that of placement and followup. Ideally the shop teacher should be the placement officer for every student he has trained, and he ought to be the person to whom the boy or man returns for counsel concerning up-grading and promotion. Placement is the acid test of a guidance program as well as of a vocational education program. If well done, the boy is inducted into the vocation for which he has been trained on the level of proficiency to which he has attained. No one is in a position to know better the subtle relationship between the requirements of a given job and the power of a given boy to make good on that job than the shop man who has taught him.

The fourth function is the personal analyses of trainees. That shop teacher who is simply giving to his pupil certain skills and is failing to study each of his boys as an individual is falling far short both as a teacher and a counsellor. All his contacts ought to be giving him more and more accurate insights concerning each boy's potentialities. As a trained observer he can gain understanding of the boy's character, his strong points, his shortcomings. Through studying results of tests of all kinds—achievement, intelligence, aptitude, emotional—he can supplement and make more accurate the analyses he has made through personal observation. By carefully devised schemes of record keeping he can picture to himself the totality of his information and seeing it whole he can interpret wisely. Every shop teacher should have a case record of every boy who has come under his influence. Records, thus kept, increasingly become a source of information which when studied points out the way to proceed in handling new cases. That it not only increases his ability as a shop teacher but makes him of inestimable value to the guidance program is inescapable. Fortunate the guidance director whose personnel includes the shop teachers and wise the counsellor who taps this source of cooperation to its full capacity.

VOCATIONAL INTERESTS OF FARM BOYS—ABSTRACT

W. F. STEWART, PROFESSOR OF AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

"To keep the boys on the farm" as an objective of vocational agriculture smacks of an austerity that has no part in a school that attempts to recognize the interests of the pupil since it predetermines wholesale the vocation of each farm boy to the complete disregard of the boy's personal aptitudes and desires.

From the point of view of agricultural economics there is further evidence that this aim discussion is unsound, for the very conclusive reason that there are not enough appropriate places for all the farm boys to remain on the farms. According to our most reliable data there is an average of nearly one-half more boys on the farm than there are farms. Thus there would be a place for all of these to remain only as farms would be made continuously more numerous through repeated sub-division. Studies in agricultural economics and farm management support the conclusion that with increased efficiency in man power due to the improvements in farm machinery and in managerial ability, the efficient farm is one that is somewhat larger rather than smaller than the present average farm. Thus both educational theory and agricultural statistics support the contention that it is a grave mistake to attempt to keep all boys on the farms.

What are the vocational interests of farm boys? More specifically, what are the boys doing who have pursued courses in vocational agriculture? Fortunately the leaders in agricultural education have concerned themselves with this important inquiry which may be interpreted as one measure of the success of the instruction in vocational agriculture.

At the close of each five-year period since the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act, namely 1922 and 1927, studies were made in a large majority of the states to ascertain, insofar as possible, just what each boy was doing who had completed one or more years of instruction in vocational agriculture and had left school. The first study, in 1922, was based upon reports from as many departments as would cooperate and included, as I recall, over 97 percent of the departments in Ohio and 62 percent of the departments in all of the states cooperating. At that time it was found that a random sampling of eight percent of the departments gave results within five percent of the results of the data from all the departments. Consequently, in the second study projected in 1927, a sampling of each twelfth department was used and constitutes the basis for data here used.

In this study Ohio data were reported from 96 percent of the pupils in the departments surveyed who had studied vocational agriculture and left school. For the five year period ending in 1927, 57 percent of the agricultural pupils leaving high school were graduates, which is an increase of seven percent over the number graduating during the period ending in 1922, and which in turn contrasts with 41 percent of graduates for the entire high-school enrolment as reported by the United States Bureau of Education in 1920. These data, it would seem, may be interpreted as the reflection in part upon the holding power in vocational agriculture.

Following the students after leaving high school we find that 56 percent were engaged in farming, four percent were in the college of agriculture, and six percent were engaged in occupations related to farm such as herdsmen, bee keeper, entomologist, concrete worker, manager of greenhouses or cream stations. Thus those farming, those in the college of agriculture, and those in occupations related to farming total 66 percent of the former students for whom their education may be said to be functioning vocationally. For 44 states the percents were 55 percent farming, three percent in agricultural colleges, and nine percent in related fields—a total of 67 percent in the United States as a whole for whom vocational education may be said to be functioning vocationally. I leave it to your judgment as to whether or not this is a commendable showing?

Those who are not farming are engaged in 40 other occupations including laborers, students, clerks, factory workers, mechanics, truck drivers, sailors and storekeepers, to mention those with highest frequency.

In noting what difference, if any, exists in the percent of farmers who have completed two years or less of vocational instruction in contrast with those who have completed more than two years, data disclose a higher number of students with the less amount of agriculture engaged in farming, the percents being 56 percent of those with two years or less of study in agriculture and 50 percent of those with more than two years. This is quite to be expected since all of the college entrance groups come from among those who have graduated from high school and who therefore probably have studied agriculture the longer period.

From these data we learn that vocational agriculture as an elective subject in high school would seem to be holding the students in school longer and making a reasonable if not highly commendable showing of the numbers who engage in farming upon leaving high school and even more commendable results when measured by the number for whom the instruction is functioning vocationally, that is those farming, those attending the college of agriculture, and those engaged in occupations related to agriculture. These results have been obtained through instruction, which, so far as the supervisor and teacher-training agencies are concerned, has been presented on the basis of pupil needs accompanied by guidance in as large a measure as possible.

Vocational interests of farm boys deserve recognition and development in keeping with the best educational theory and practise. Instruction given to them on a vocational basis appears to be functional as measured by life work of a large majority. Unguided selection of vocations is all too common among farm boys. The needs of farm as a vocation should be met by trained youth, very largely farm youth, but in no sense should we be concerned merely with keeping boys on the farm.

HOME ECONOMICS INTERESTS OF HOME ECONOMICS GIRLS—ABSTRACT

ENID W. LUNN, STATE SUPERVISOR OF HOME ECONOMICS, COLUMBUS, OHIO

Numerous times requests are made regarding the difference between vocational and non-vocational home economics courses. When it is explained that a vocational home economics course offers the high-school girl opportunity to prepare for homemaking activities of immediate as well as of future interest and safeguards this training with experience in actual home practise, the questioner invariably wonders if *all* girls would not be interested in such work.

Through a questionnaire, which was answered by high-school girls, both those who were and those who were not studying home economics, an opportunity was given the girls to express their wishes and interests with regard to the subjectmatter which is included in home economics courses. The girls who helped with the study were located in city, village, and centralized schools. City and exempted village schools, both vocational and non-vocational, were selected so as to include industrial cities and cities depending mainly upon surrounding farm country for their support.

Arranged according to the various divisions or units into which home economics is usually organized, the order of girls' desire for them measured by frequency of occurrence is as follows:

1. Personal and social relationships
2. Clothing
3. Home planning and furnishing
4. Foods
5. Home management
6. Health
7. Child care and training

The order of these same units determined by the frequency of their having been studied presents a rearrangement approaching reversal. The latter order follows:

1. Health
2. Foods
3. Clothing
4. Personal and social relationships
5. Home management
6. Home planning and furnishing
7. Child care and training

The interests which the girls have expressed indicate that they are concerned with problems of a broader nature than cooking and garment construction.

Every opportunity that the girl has in the home economics course to foster personal development adds to her capacity to make of herself the type of girl she wants to be. But the development of self is at every turn associated with another desire which affects personal and group relationships.

The desire for selfimprovement so as to make more worthwhile contributions to the family and to society show how inseparable the contacts are between the girl and others. The training which home economics can give the girl for this phase of democratic living is one of its largest contributions to education.

Charm in manners ceases to be attractive if a purely selfish attitude is taken. Human sympathies and interests beyond self are necessary if a pleasing personality is really to be developed. These attributes may be acquired only through experience in social contacts. Besides discussions on this subject, girls in home economics classes have put their knowledge into practise through courtesies exchanged in the classrooms, in the corridors, in clubs, and at home. Each experience has strengthened and enriched the life of the girl.

The felt need of the girls for cooperating with their families offers an excellent example of the democratic theory that opportunity for individual development leads to responsibility for others. The girls want to know how to provide recreation for the family. There are two points involved in this. First the girls could gain in selfdevelopment, which in this instance would include learning the types of recreation which might be suitable for her family; she would also develop in selfexpression and in assuming responsibility. In the second place, a fine spirit of interest in the family is involved. Adults today are anxious about the lack of entertainment within the family. When high-school girls see the need for developing the ability to take part in providing for the leisure time of the family, it seems fair to assume that this sense of responsibility will carry over into their own homes later on.

Our assurance depends upon the point of view which the teacher is able to develop in leading the girls to think of ways in which to solve the problems that they meet. As opportunities are provided throughout the course of study for satisfying the present needs of the girl, the ability and initiative of each one is given occasion for expression. As every opportunity carries with it responsibility for social welfare, the problems of the home lead to ways in which desirable social changes can be brought about. No course in clothing would be complete without securing the interest of the class in the textile industry, especially from the standpoint of the condition of the workers who provide our clothing for us; nor would a course in foods be finished without a consideration of the reason for pure food regulations; likewise health courses must go beyond immediate personal health to consider public health; and child care courses when taught so as to include a broad social viewpoint will engage the interest of the girls in the benefits derived from child labor laws.

The content in which the girls have expressed a desire to study indicates the variety of training which teachers will need. Teachers who have prepared themselves in one field, nutritionists for instance, will not be successful in leading the girls in the well-rounded training that they want. First of all, teachers must have studied a comprehensive home economics program.

In the second place, they must be imbued with belief in the aims of home economics education. Otherwise it is likely that there will not be a proper balance between practical interests on the one hand and, on the other, those factors which make for a home that is a richer sort of social institution.

The present insistent demand as regards teacher training in the home economics field is that due attention shall be given to liberalizing as well as specializing content. Especial need seems to exist for stress upon the economic, esthetic, or strictly humanistic aspects of natural and social science. The teacher must possess the traits of personality which will enlist the confidence of pupils and parents. In addition a knowledge of teaching method will need be acquired. Such a welltrained teacher can make of home economics a program of study which will be as vital, as stimulating and as liberalizing as any subject in the curriculum.

The teacher must have the support of an administration which is determined through a modern order of thinking. A revised point of view regarding home economics is perhaps the most important change that is needed. When a richer program is offered the public, and when superintendents come to realize its greater educational value, it may perhaps be assumed that a larger place for it in the programs of studies will be made. Then, perhaps, capable pupils will be advised to include it among their studies, schedule adjustments will be arranged, satisfactory equipment facilities will be more general, and teachers with the necessary training will be employed.

VITAL VALUES IN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

C. M. MILLER, STATE DIRECTOR OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, TOPEKA, KANS.

The vital values in industrial education are the same as those which accrue to any other type of education; namely, the human values.

Industrial education is different from general education in that it is specifically vocational, and its major objective is the improvement of workers in their respective jobs to the end that their immediate earning power is increased.

Assuming that being able to earn one's livelihood is one of the requirements for good citizenship, anything that will help a person to earn a better livelihood will make him a better citizen. After all, it is only to the end that individuals become better citizens that society is justified in making any investment whatever in their educational advancement.

What are some of the things that make men better citizens? What are some of the vital values in industrial education? Not long ago a furnace man came to my home to clean the furnace. He did not appear to be different from other chimney sweeps I have known but for some reason I made conversation with him. I learned that he was at that time taking correspondence training in heating and ventilation, and that he had hopes of advancing from a furnace cleaner to a heating and ventilation engineer. What was the thing that impelled this man to use a considerable portion of his leisure time and expend some of his truly hard earned money to improve himself? It was the hope of something better than furnace cleaning. Certainly the fact that trade and industrial education keeps alive that spark of hope in many a human heart is one of its vital values. Industrial education supplied through a correspondence school contributed one of the vital values of industrial education. Should not such service be supplied by the local public schools?

The whole tendency is toward shorter working hours and shorter working weeks, thus giving workers more leisure time. Unless this additional leisure time is profitably used it may become a liability rather than an asset. Unless workers use a part of this leisure time for selfimprovement either in their trade or some cultural way, they will have lost rather than gained. If this time is used only to attend the dog races, the picture show, the pool hall, or the ball game, nothing will have been gained. Helping workers to profitably invest their leisure time is probably one of the most vital values industrial education can supply.

One of the most vital values that industrial education will ever develop will come in the way of a byproduct. It will be a better understanding between employees and employers. Neither will need sacrifice any principle or any ground gained, but both will come to realize more and more the absolute necessity of harmonious relationships between labor and capital; between leaders and followers; between artists and artisans; between dreamers and doers.

The most vital values of industrial education are those which tend to make men better home builders, better community builders, and more useful citizens. Mr. Milton Prince Higgins says that the philosophy of learning a trade is:

> To make a good living; to have a happy family; to make preparation for hard times; to wear overalls in the shop with the same dignity as good clothes are worn on Sunday; to be confident you are laying a sure foundation for any future success; and that you share the creative spirit; to feel you are master of your work. This is the wholesome philosophy of learning a trade.

I might add that it is the wholesome philosophy of industrial education.

WHAT HOME ECONOMICS IS DOING FOR THE EMPLOYED GIRL—ABSTRACT

TREVA E. KAUFFMAN, SUPERVISOR OF HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION, STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, ALBANY, N. Y.

It is generally concluded by educators and investigators in these modern times that the majority of girls and women at some period in their life will spend some time in employment and some in homemaking. Dr. Edwin A. Lee in a recent address on this subject says, "If it be accepted that every adult woman, married or single, makes of her habitation a home, it is probably true that the vocation of homemaking commands the attention in some measure of over a quarter of a hundred million individuals; that women must be trained not for one vocation but for at least two. Of these, homemaking is the permanent vocation, the other in the overwhelming majority of cases must be considered temporary." As second consideration he says, "The modern home is ceasing to be the place in which a girl may learn the art and science of homemaking."

Many girls enter upon employment during their junior or senior high-school years. The twenty-eight states making some provisions for attendance upon partime or continuation schools, according to Chart No. 1, Childrens Bureau, United States Government, January 1, 1930, have the opportunity to further help these girls through home economics instruction, and this is where home economics must function in the life of the girl or she considers it a waste of her time and money.

Home economics educators are teaching students how to select proper clothing according to individual types and how to care for it afterwards. The clothing budget based on the girl's wage is studied with points on economics of buying, study of art principles, and durability of clothes as related to it. The upkeep and care of the wardrobe of any working girl is considered of such importance now that every girl is willing to learn efficient ways of caring for this problem. The personal grooming of any girl has also become a science and an art. Good health depends more or less on the selection of three nutritious meals a day, proper health habits, wholesome recreation, and freedom from mental worry. It is necessary for every girl, whether she eats at home or outside, to know how to properly select three nutritious meals a day, having the food well-prepared, and giving some thought to the amount of money involved. Knowledge of the above items usually helps to keep the girl at work without loss for illness which means continuous pay. They are all taught in a practical way.

Many teachers are teaching how to make attractive homes through remodeling projects at school, by setting up a girl's bedroom, furnishing a living-dining room, rearranging a convenient kitchen, furnishing a small apartment or home on $500 to $1000. Efficient methods of caring for the home and the use of labor saving appliances are demonstrated. Thus the girl can improve her present environment. Family relationships with entertaining in the home and thinking of the rest of the family's recreation often bring easier adjustments to the girl in her home life.

Much time in the home economics instruction is given to helping the girl to proper recreation, since in a survey in several communities about four hours a day are given over by this girl to recreation and pleasure. To make this wholesome and beneficial has been the aim and result of this teaching.

In the remaining states where no provision is made for attendance upon partime or continuation schools and in the twenty-eight states with provision for maintaining these schools, large numbers of employed girls and women attend classes voluntarily in the afternoon or evening for instruction in home economics. Much of the work given meets personal living needs as to proper food, clothing, housing, entertaining, hospitality, budgets, buying and consuming, labor saving appliances, while many are preparing for marriage, and some are carrying on the dual role of marriage and work; their interest, of course, goes further into the family and home life and more study along this line is taken up.

It is always an open question in the mind of the teacher as to just what should be the points of emphasis in the teaching of these various subjects. Perhaps it would be of some interest to you to know what we expect the desired outcomes in each course to be. I shall list them for you in outline form:

Clothing

1. Ability to use the machine
2. Habit of applying common principles of sewing
3. Ability to use commercial patterns and make simple garments
4. Ability to select materials for garments made at home
5. Ability to compare the ready-to-wear garment with the garment made at home.

Applied art

1. Ability to apply art principles to clothes and furnishings
2. Development of a desire for beauty
3. Development of standards of beauty
4. Development of an art vocabulary.

Foods

1. Ability to operate heating appliances
2. Ability to choose and use utensils wisely
3. Ability to interpret recipes accurately and measure ingredients carefully
4. Ability to work systematically in the preparation of food
5. Knowledge and habits of correct table manners and table service
6. Ability to properly arrange a table
7. Ability to select foods wisely considering cost, food value, and healthfulness.

Home Hygiene

1. Causes and prevention of sickness
2. Cleanliness
3. Proper selection of clothing according to weather and seasons
4. Proper selection of foods
5. Use of proper health terms.

Home Management

1. Ability to intelligently share the responsibilities of the home
2. Home appreciation
3. Ability and desire to promote home happiness
4. Ability to maintain an orderly home
5. Ability to budget the family income.

Aims of course in child care and training

1. To teach how to care for children
2. To recognize that the care of children is a normal home problem
3. To develop proper attitudes toward children
4. To interest girls in the need for intelligent care of children
5. To make a detailed study of the child at different age levels; namely, infant, toddler, runabout, and school age.

The writer believes that this education, from results shown, is essential to modern civilization. It is helping the employed girl and woman to a richer life as a citizen, giving industry and business a more satisfactory employee and the nation a stronger home life.

SOME OBJECTIVES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN AGRICULTURE—ABSTRACT

Z. M. SMITH, STATE DIRECTOR OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION,
INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

Among the objectives that are basic in the program of vocational education in agriculture are:

1. To supply mankind with clothing, food, and shelter in full-satisfying measure with the greatest economy of time, money, and energy.
2. To add to these necessities the additional things that enrich life and bring into fruitage the deep and abiding satisfactions for which mankind is striving constantly.
3. To achieve these two objectives in such a manner as to enlarge the social vision and the sympathetic understanding of these contributors to human welfare, thereby imbuing their souls with altruistic ideals and yet concurrently increasing their technical efficiency.

The basic physical necessities of human beings cannot be supplied adequately at a just cost by inefficient farming. The farmer is confronted constantly with the problem of supplying these necessities with a fair profit from his business and yet at a price the consumer can be expected to pay.

A satisfactory solution of the problems of the farmer will not have been reached until such time as the farmers of the world succeed in organizing and conducting a world-community program of production and marketing of farm products, supplemented with a program of purchasing. Farmers must organize and conduct their own program of production, marketing, and purchasing. Their information and experience program of training must deal with and prepare them for responsibilities in this three-fold task. These three phases of this task are interrelated and interwoven to the degree that one cannot be carried on successfully without successful development and execution of the other.

Farmers must organize and conduct their own program of marketing. This cannot be done with profit independently of their production program nor their purchasing program. If the production or buying program is overdone, underdone, or poorly done, a profitable marketing program is an impossibility.

The production program must be organized and conducted on a world-community basis, reduced in final analysis to national, state, regional, district, and local units. The population of the world is known. The needs of individuals for the maintenance of life, health, and general satisfaction are known. The areas in which and the conditions under which different kinds of agricultural products can be produced with the least expenditure of time, money, and energy are known for practical purposes.

The problem is one, therefore, of laying out definitely through local, district, regional, state, national, and international agencies, working cooperatively, a production program to meet world needs—production responsibilities to be met by different areas in conformity with their suitableness to economic production of designated products, and of laying out a correlative program of marketing that will give reasonable assurance that agricultural products will be distributed on a world-community basis with the greatest possible economy of time, money, and energy.

The problem of supplying the food, clothing, and shelter needs of mankind may be analyzed somewhat as follows:

1. Marketing farm products is an outstanding responsibility with which the farmer is confronted constantly.
2. Cooperative marketing holds an exceedingly important place in the whole program of marketing farm products.
3. Farmers cannot market their products intelligently, if they are not informed on marketing conditions to be met.
4. Farmers must organize and conduct their own marketing program.
5. Profitable farming is dependent in large measure on the success with which farm products are marketed.
6. The farmer cannot produce and sell with profit either the kinds or amounts of products that consumers cannot or will not buy.
7. Marketing farm products cannot be successful except as production is kept in harmony with the needs of consumers in kind and scope.
8. Marketing farm products cannot be organized and conducted profitably without direct relation to the production program. Neither can a production program be organized and conducted profitably without direct relation to the marketing program.
9. Buying is a basic factor in a successful business of any kind.
10. Cooperative activities of farmers include, therefore, production, marketing, and buying.
11. This unified program must be organized and conducted by all the farmers of a community acting in cooperation.
12. A community as here interpreted is (1) local, (2) county or district-wide, (3) regional, (4) state-wide, (5) national, (6) international or world-wide in scope and significance.

We must not breed a race of mercenary farmers. Farming must be done on a basis that will bring economic returns commensurate with economically expended time, money, and energy. This can and must be done without dwarfing the soul-stature of the tiller of the soil. Training for profitable farming must be based on the comprehensive and universal needs of mankind and not on the partial and sectional needs. The responsibilities of the farmer must encompass the whole man and the whole world. The comprehensive and universal needs of man find their genesis in both the tangible and the intangible aspects of human life.

Vocational training for medical professions, for teaching professions, for law, for the ministry, for the fine arts is no more important than vocational training for service in transportation, commerce, manufacturing, trades, home making, or agricultural pursuits. The farmer of today and the future must be trained to recognize and understand this broad and deep conception of his business and citizenship responsibilities.

This broader and deeper conception of his obligations will impose more heavily upon him the necessity of being a business man. He must be schooled in both the art and the science of establishing and maintaining a balanced farm business. The man, the horse, and machinery power on his farm must be used to maximum advantage; the land must be utilized efficiently; risks must be kept at a minimum; soil fertility must be maintained; building and fencing costs must be kept as low as is consistent with sound business practise; overhead expenses must be kept at a minimum level; marketing must be done in the manner demonstrated to be the most profitable to both the producer and the consumer.

We covet for the farmer the kind of vocational training that will enable him to expand his conception of a community from that of local or provincial significance to world-wide significance. We want him to know how science can and will eliminate for him the barriers of distance and thus make possible world solidarity so far as time and space are concerned. Coupled with his knowledge and mastery of science in the physical realm must be his knowledge and mastery of the forces in the realm of the social sciences that will enable him, in concerted effort with his fellowmen, to bring to full fruition a type of social service and sincere brotherliness which will make mankind one family in interest, aspirations, and ideals.

CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT THROUGH VOCATIONAL EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

C. A. HOWARD, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
SALEM, ORE.

Character education as a former generation conceived of it was a comparatively simple thing. It consisted in urging the acquisition of certain enumerated virtues and the avoidance of certain enumerated vices. The young man who neither "smoked, drank, nor played cards" was presumed to be a model youth. While modern educational philosophy recognizes the importance of cultivating certain desirable habits of conduct, it conceives of character as something much more fundamental than the items of conduct through which it may display itself.

The Committee on Character Education of the National Education Association in its report published in 1926 defined character development as "the emerging and strengthening of those elements in the child's volitional flow which promise to be fruitful in the human order in which he is to live." The committee pointed out that this development can be "fostered and nourished by the conscious and deliberate intervention of the educative process"; in other words, that there is such a thing as character education.

Nothing so vitalizes the education of the individual as the choice of a worthy vocation. "The desire to be something other than we are is the only thing that makes education possible," says Charles E. Rugh. When that "something" is so definite as to amount to a vocational choice, the entire educational procedure becomes motivated.

The vocational student comes to his instructor with a desire frequently amounting to eagerness to acquire the intellectual training and the manual skill that will make him effective in the vocation he has chosen. Of equal importance with training and skill, so far as vocational success is concerned, is the development of those elements of character that are sound and dependable. The student can readily recognize this if it is pointed out to him. The vocational instructor must not overlook this part of his job.

What are some of the specific things which the vocational instructor may do in the way of character education? First, he should help the student to recognize his vocation as something far greater and finer than the material product of his skill. Appreciation of sound workmanship and satisfaction in producing it are of much greater importance than the thing produced.

Second, the instructor should attempt to develop in the student a pride in his vocation as an opportunity to serve a social need. It is through a recognition of the social importance of his vocation that the man who follows the humblest calling can maintain his selfrespect and can be prevented from suffering from that wound to the personality which we call an inferiority complex.

Third, the instructor should attempt to develop in his student high standards of workmanship and of service. The student should be made familiar with the code of ethics of his craft. If a particular craft has no code of ethics, students who are planning to enter it should be put to work preparing one.

Fourth, the instructor should bring his students to recognize the fact that every worthy vocation depends for its success upon the stability of the social structure in which it is to be practised. No man with the slightest wisdom would spend his working hours building the superstructure of the home in which he expects to live, and then occupy his leisure hours chipping pieces of concrete out of the foundation; nor would he permit others to thus endanger his future safety and happiness if he could prevent it. The man who is to succeed in his vocation must assume some responsibility for maintaining the honesty, decency, and integrity of the community in which that vocation is to be carried on.

Fifth, the instructor should respect the religious convictions of his students and their families. However widely individuals may differ in their religious views and in their opinions as to the efficacy of religion in the promotion of right conduct, the fact remains that the church does stand forth as an avowed agency of righteousness and as a bulwark against those influences that would disintegrate the moral life of our people. That man is assuming a tremendous responsibility who turns a youth away from his church.

The vocational instructor has an opportunity possessed by few other teachers to shape the character of the student who comes under his hands. Recognition of this opportunity and consciousness of this responsibility on the part of the vocational group should become a part of the general movement toward a more definite and specific type of character education.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN AERONAUTICS—ABSTRACT

ROLAND H. SPAULDING, DIRECTOR, GROUND SCHOOL COURSES FOR INSTRUCTORS, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

When considering with school executives the advisability of giving vocational training in aeronautics, I have noticed considerable apprehension concerning the future status of air transportation. I take it to be worthwhile, therefore, to introduce the discussion of my subject today with a resumé of the results of several studies that have been made of the aviation industry.

One of the conclusions reached by research experts of the Curtis Publishing Company, who recently published an outstanding report, "The Aviation Industry" concurred in by the major executives in the economic and financial world, was to the effect that the aviation industry will develop into a large and sound industry. Confidence in this conclusion was based upon two facts:

> 1. The idea of air travel is sound. Air travel is certainly the quickest, can be made the most comfortable, and ultimately will be the least expensive method of long distance travel.
>
> 2. The industry in all its phases is manned by young men with enthusiasm and with faith in the future of the industry.

The report continues:

> We believe a day will come when over the main airways connecting large cities, frequent planes with capacity for twenty or more passengers will pass on regular schedules well loaded with passengers, mail, and express; that from minor cities along these routes will come smaller planes also well patronized, acting as feeders for the trunk lines; that neighboring major cities will have intercommunication by air approaching street-ar frequency, so that if one plane is crowded, no matter—another will start very soon; that neighboring minor cities will have intercommunication by smaller planes which in many cases may be able to secure sufficient patronage for hourly service; that planes from minor cities to major ones for shopping, for afternoon matinees, for evening entertainments, will become a well-patronized commuting service; that many business men with pilot chauffeurs will commute by plane from estates to their city offices; that air service twice weekly or more frequently will carry passengers, mail, and express to Europe and to the Orient; that frequent air service will connect the United States with Hawaii, Philippine Islands, and all of its possessions; that the greater part of first-class mail, both over land and over water, will be carried in the air, and that air express will be one of the most profitable parts of the air service.

How long it will take for the consummation of the program will depend upon three factors:

> 1. The support given by government agencies; by the federal government in mail contracts, extension of weather bureau service, radio and route lighting; by local governments in developing suitable airports and providing rapid communication to and from the airports.
>
> Since any future war is likely to be fought primarily in the air, the government has abundant reason to foster the aviation industry in the interest of national defense. The existence of large and well-equipped factories for the production of automotive equipment was one of the major factors in America's contribution to the World War. If the United States ever becomes involved in another war, American airplane factories may be the determining factor.

2. The consummation of this program will depend upon the willingness of capital to make consequential investments in the industry, foregoing immediate profits in a belief that future returns will justify immediate sacrifice.
3. The consummation of this program will also depend upon the amount and character of advertising put behind the industry. This, in a sense, is the basic factor, for advertising which will educate the public to use aviation facilities will at the same time do much to crystallize sentiment favorable to governmental support of the industry and will be helpful in maintaining confidence of capital during a period of small dividends.

All evidence points to the fact that the aviation industry is destined to become a large and sound industry requiring the utilization of trained men in many trades. The requirements of the aviation industry are so high that anyone becoming sufficiently competent to work in this field, may readily find employment in allied activities in other industries should the field become over-crowded. The leaders in vocational education, therefore, may sponsor trade education in the field of aeronautics with a minimum of apprehension concerning an over-supply of trained men.

However, the introduction to this work should be based upon four principles:

1. A survey or consideration of the trade activities of the community, (a) to ascertain the labor needs in the various trades, both in the aviation industries there represented and in allied industries, and (b) to obtain the cooperation of the aviation manufacturing executives and the airport officials.
2. The building of the course of study by a joint committee representing the aviation enterprises and the public school system.
3. A guarantee of adequate equipment.
4. The acquisition of a qualified teaching personnel.

For the realization of these principles in actual vocational training, equipment and aids to instruction are rapidly becoming available.

Any high school in a community where trade education has its place can, I believe, with profit, inaugurate courses on the trade level which will contribute to the pupils' later success in the field of aeronautics. This is no idle prophecy, for already some 300 public school systems in the United States are giving training in one form or another in aeronautical education. Thirty of these schools are giving one or more courses upon the vocational or trade education level. Our committee has in the press at the present time a pamphlet describing in considerable detail the work of these schools. We shall be glad to send you a copy of this pamphlet upon request.

I have no doubt whatsoever that, within the next five years, we shall find the present number of thirty school systems giving vocational training in aeronautics multiplied many times over in the various cities of the United States. My hope is that our achievement in this field may surpass greatly our record in automotive vocational education.

Associational Records and Information

Associational Records and Information

1857—1870

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

Organized August 26, 1857, at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

PURPOSE—*To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States.*

The name of the Association was changed at Cleveland, Ohio, on August 15, 1870, to the "National Educational Association."

1870—1907

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia, February 24, 1886, under the name, "National Education Association," which was changed to "National Educational Association," by certificate filed November 6, 1886.

1907—

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Incorporated under a special act of Congress, approved June 30, 1906, to succeed the "National Educational Association." The charter was accepted and bylaws were adopted at the Fiftieth Anniversary Convention held July 10, 1907, at Los Angeles, California.

ACT OF INCORPORATION

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled:

List of Incorporators

SECTION 1. That the following-named persons, who are now officers and directors and trustees of the National Educational Association, a corporation organized in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-six, under the Act of General Incorporation of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, viz: *Nathan C. Schaeffer, *Eliphalet Oram Lyte, *John W. Lansinger, of Pennsylvania; Isaac W. Hill, of Alabama; Arthur J. Matthews, of Arizona; John H. Hinemon, *George B. Cook, of Arkansas; *Joseph O'Connor, *Josiah L. Pickard, Arthur H. Chamberlain, of California; *Aaron Gove, *Ezekiel H. Cook, Lewis C. Greenlee, of Colorado; *Charles H. Keyes, of Connecticut; *George W. Twitmyer, of Delaware; *J. Ormond Wilson, *William T. Harris, *Alexander T. Stuart, of the District of Columbia; Clem Hampton, of Florida; *William M. Slaton, of Georgia; *Frances Mann, of Idaho; J. Stanley Brown, *Albert G. Lane, *Charles I. Parker, *John W. Cook, *Joshua Pike, Albert R. Taylor, *Joseph A. Mercer, of Illinois; *Nebraska Cropsey, Thomas A. Mott, of Indiana; John D. Benedict, of Indian Territory; John F. Riggs, Ashley V. Storm, of Iowa; John W. Spindler, Jasper N. Wilkinson, *A. V. Jewett, *Luther D. Whittemore, of Kansas; William Henry Bartholomew, of Kentucky; *Warren Easton, of Louisiana; *John S. Locke, of Maine; *M. Bates Stephens, of

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* Deceased.

Maryland; *Charles W. Eliot, *Mary H. Hunt, Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts, Hugh A. Graham, Charles G. White, William H. Elson, of Michigan; *William F. Phelps, *Irwin Shepard, John A. Cranston, of Minnesota; Robert B. Fulton, of Mississippi; *F. Louis Soldan, *James M. Greenwood, William J. Hawkins, of Missouri; *Oscar J. Craig, of Montana; George L. Towne, of Nebraska; *Joseph E. Stubbs, of Nevada; James E. Klock, of New Hampshire; *James M. Green, John Enright, of New Jersey; *Charles M. Light, of New Mexico; *James H. Canfield, Nicholas Murray Butler, *William H. Maxwell, *Charles R. Skinner, *Albert P. Marble, James C. Byrnes, of New York; James Y. Joyner, Julius Isaac Foust, of North Carolina; *Pitt Gordon Knowlton, of North Dakota; *Oscar T. Corson, Jacob A. Shawan, Wells L. Griswold, of Ohio; Edgar S. Vaught, Andrew R. Hickham, of Oklahoma; *Charles Carroll Stratton, Edwin D. Ressler, of Oregon; *Thomas W. Bicknell, Walter Ballou Jacobs, of Rhode Island; *David B. Johnson, Robert P. Pell, of South Carolina; Moritz Adelbert Langer, of South Dakota; Eugene F. Turner, of Tennessee; Lloyd E. Wolf, of Texas; David H. Christensen, of Utah; *Henry O. Wheeler, Isaac Thomas, of Vermont; Joseph L. Jarman, of Virginia; Edward T. Mathes, of Washington; *T. Marcellus Marshall, Lucy Robinson, of West Virginia; *Lorenzo D. Harvey, of Wisconsin; *Thomas T. Tynan, of Wyoming; Cassia Patton, of Alaska; Frank H. Ball, of Porto Rico; Arthur F. Griffiths, of Hawaii; C. H. Maxson, of the Philippine Islands; and such other persons as now are or may hereafter be associated with them as officers or members of said Association, are hereby incorporated and declared to be a body corporate of the District of Columbia by the name of the "National Education Association of the United States," and by that name shall be known and have perpetual succession with the powers, limitations, and restrictions herein contained.

Purpose and Departments

SEC. 2. That the purpose and object of the said corporation shall be to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States. This corporation shall include the National Council of Education and the following departments, and such others as may hereafter be created by organization or consolidation, to-wit: The Departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third, of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Manual Training; sixth, of Art Education; seventh, of Kindergarten Education; eighth, of Music Education; ninth, of Secondary Education; tenth, of Business Education; eleventh, of Child Study; twelfth, of Physical Education; thirteenth, of Natural Science Instruction; fourteenth of School Administration; fifteenth, the Library Department; sixteenth, of Special Education; seventeenth, of Indian Education; the powers and duties and the numbers and names of these departments and of the National Council of Education may be changed or abolished at the pleasure of the corporation, as provided in its bylaws.

Powers of Corporation

SEC. 3. That the said corporation shall further have power to have and to use a common seal, and to alter and change the same at its pleasure; to sue or to be sued in any court of the United States, or other court of competent jurisdiction, to make bylaws not inconsistent with the provisions of this act or of the Constitution of the United States; to take or receive, whether by gift, grant, devise, bequest, or purchase, any real or personal estate, and to hold, grant, convey, hire or lease the same for the purpose of its incorporation; and to accept and administer any trust of real or personal estate for any educational purpose within the objects of the corporation.

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* Deceased.

Property to be Tax-Exempt

Sec. 4. That all real property of the corporation within the District of Columbia which shall be used by the corporation for the educational or other purposes of the corporation as aforesaid other than the purposes of producing income, and all personal property and funds of the corporation held, used, or invested for educational purposes aforesaid, or to produce income to be used for such purposes, shall be exempt from taxation; *provided,* however, that this exemption shall not apply to any property of the corporation which shall not be used for, or the income of which shall not be applied to, the educational purposes of the corporation; and, *provided further,* That the corporation shall annually file, with the Commissioner of Education of the United States, a report in writing, stating in detail the property, real and personal, held by the corporation, and the expenditure or other use or disposition of the same, or the income thereof, during the preceding year.

Members

Sec. 5. That the membership of the said corporation shall consist of three classes of members—viz, active, associate, and corresponding—whose qualifications, terms of membership, rights, and obligations shall be prescribed by the bylaws of the corporation.

Officers

Sec. 6. That the officers of the said corporation shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, an Executive Committee, and a Board of Trustees.

Board of Directors

The Board of Directors shall consist of the President, the First Vice-President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and one additional member from each state, territory, or district, to be elected by the active members for the term of one year, or until their successors are chosen, and of all life directors of the National Educational Association. The United States Commissioner of Education, and all former presidents of the said Association now living, and all future Presidents of the Association hereby incorporated, at the close of their respective terms of office, shall be members of the Board of Directors for life. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the corporation, excepting those herein intrusted to the Board of Trustees; and shall possess such other powers as shall be conferred upon them by the bylaws of the corporation.

Executive Committee

The Executive Committee shall consist of five members, as follows: the President of the Association, the First Vice-President, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and a member of the Association, to be chosen annually by the Board of Directors, to serve one year. The said committee shall have authority to represent, and to act for the Board of Directors in the intervals between the meetings of that body, to the extent of carrying out the legislation adopted by the Board of Directors under general directions as may be given by said board.

Board of Trustees

The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members elected by the Board of Directors for the term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex officio* during his term of office. At the first meeting of the Board of Directors, held during the annual meeting of the Association, at which they were elected, they shall elect one trustee for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a trustee from two successive annual meetings of the board shall forfeit his membership.

Permanent Fund

Duties of Trustees

SEC. 7. That the invested fund now known as the "Permanent Fund of the National Educational Association," when transferred to the corporation hereby created, shall be held by such corporation as a Permanent Fund and shall be in charge of the Board of Trustees, who shall provide for the safekeeping and investment of such fund, and of all other funds which the corporation may receive by donation, bequest, or devise. No part of the principal of such Permanent Fund or its accretions shall be expended, except by a two thirds vote of the active members of the Association present at any annual meeting, upon the recommendation of the Board of Trustees, after such recommendation has been approved by vote of the Board of Directors, and after printed notice of the proposed expenditure has been mailed to all active members of the Association. The income of the Permanent Fund shall be used only to meet the cost of maintaining the organization of the Association and of publishing its annual volume of *Proceedings,* unless the terms of the donation, bequest, or devise shall otherwise specify, or the Board of Directors shall otherwise order. It shall also be the duty of the Board of Trustees to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors. When practicable, the Board of Trustees shall invest, as part of the Permanent Fund, all surplus funds exceeding $500 that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year, and providing for the fixed expenses and for all appropriations made by the Board of Directors for the ensuing year.

Election of Secretary

The Board of Trustees shall elect the Secretary of the Association, who shall be Secretary of the Executive Committee, and shall fix the compensation and the term of his office for a period not to exceed four years.

Location of Office

SEC. 8. That the principal office of the said corporation shall be in the city of Washington, D. C.; *provided,* That the meeting of the corporation, its officers, committees, and departments, may be held, and that its business may be transacted, and an office or offices may be maintained, elsewhere, within the United States, as may be determined by the Board of Directors, or otherwise in accordance with the bylaws.

Acceptance of This Charter

SEC. 9. That the charter, constitution, and bylaws of the National Educational Association shall continue in full force and effect until the charter granted by this act shall be accepted by such Association at the next annual meeting of the Association, and until new bylaws shall be adopted; and that the present officers, directors, and trustees of said Association shall continue to hold office and perform their respective duties as such until the expiration of terms for which they were severally elected or appointed, and until their successors are elected. That at such annual meeting the active members of the National Educational Association. then present, may organize and proceed to accept the charter granted by this act and adopt bylaws, to elect officers to succeed those whose terms have expired or are about to expire, and generally to organize the "National Education Association of the United States"; and that the Board of Trustees of the corporation hereby incorporated shall thereupon, if the charter granted by this act be accepted, receive, take over, and enter into possession, custody, and management of all property, real and personal, of the corporation heretofore known as the National Educational Association incorporated as aforesaid, under the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, and all its rights, contracts, claims, and property of every kind and nature whatsoever, and the several officers, directors, and trustees of such last-named Association, or any other person having charge of any of the securities, funds, books or property thereof, real or personal, shall on demand deliver the same to the proper officers, directors, or trustees of the corporation hereby created. *Provided,* That a verified certificate executed by the presiding officer and secretary of such annual meeting, showing the acceptance of the charter granted by this act by the National Educational Association, shall be legal evidence of the fact, when filed with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia; and, *provided further,* That in the event of the failure of the Association to accept the charter granted by this act at said annual meeting then the charter of the National Educational Association and its incorporate existence shall be and are hereby extended until the thirty-first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, and at any time before said date its charter may be extended in the manner and form provided by the general corporation of the District of Columbia.

Rights of Creditors

Sec. 10. That the rights of creditors of the said existing corporation, known as the National Educational Association, shall not in any manner be impaired by the passage of this act, or the transfer of the property heretofore mentioned, nor shall any liability or obligation, or payment of any sum due or to become due, or any claim or demand, in any manner, or for any cause existing against the said existing corporation, be released or impaired; and the corporation hereby incorporated is declared to succeed to the obligations and liabilities, and to be held liable to pay and discharge all of its debts, liabilities and contracts of the said corporation so existing, to the same effect as if such new corporation had itself incurred the obligation or liability to pay such debts or damages, and no action or proceeding before any court or tribunal shall be deemed to have abated or been discontinued by reason of this act.

Amendments To Charter

Sec. 11. The Congress may from time to time alter, repeal, or modify this act of incorporation, but no contract or individual right made or acquired shall thereby be divested or impaired.

Creation of Representative Assembly

Sec. 12. That said corporation may provide, by amendment to its bylaws, that the powers of the active members exercised at the annual meeting in the election of officers and the transaction of business shall be vested in and exercised by a representative assembly composed of delegates apportioned, elected, and governed in accordance with the provisions of the bylaws adopted by said corporation.

Sections 1-11 were passed by Congress and approved by the President, June 30, 1906. They were accepted and adopted as the constitution of the National Education Association of the United States by the active members of the National Educational Association in annual session at Los Angeles, California, July 10, 1907.

Section 12 was passed by Congress and approved by the President of the United States, May 13, 1920, as an amendment to the original act of incorporation. It was accepted and adopted as an amendment to the constitution of the National Education Association of the United States by the active members thereof in annual session at Salt Lake City, Utah, July 9, 1920.

BYLAWS AS AMENDED AT THE ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING OF THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA, JULY 6, 1928[1]

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

Wherever the word "State" appears in the proposed amendments to these bylaws it will be understood that State, Territory, or District of the United States is meant.

Membership Defined

SECTION 1. The membership of the National Education Association of the United States shall consist of three classes Active, Associate, and Corresponding, whose qualifications, rights, and obligations shall be as hereinafter prescribed.

SEC. 2. Active members of the Association shall be those actively engaged in the profession of teaching or other educational work.

Obligations and Privileges

SEC. 3. The annual dues of an active member shall be $2, which shall entitle him to attend all meetings of the Association and its several Departments; to receive *The Journal* free and on application, to secure all publications of the Association at a price fixed by the Executive Committee, which shall be the approximate cost. By the payment of annual dues of $5 an active member shall receive in addition to *The Journal,* without application or other condition, the volume of Proceedings and all other regular publications of the Association, including reports of Committees and all special bulletins and announcements when issued.

Life Members and Life Directors

SEC. 4. All life members and life directors shall have all the rights and privileges of active members without the payment of annual dues, and shall receive free without application or condition the publications of the Association.

Associate Members

SEC. 5. Associate members of the Association shall be persons who are not actively engaged in the profession of teaching or other educational work, but who are otherwise interested in the promotion of education. The annual dues of an associate member shall be the same as the dues of an active member and he shall have the same rights and privileges, except the right to vote, to serve as a delegate in the Representative Assembly, and to hold office.

Corresponding Members

SEC. 6. Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected by the Board of Directors as corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall not at any time exceed fifty. They shall pay no dues and may receive free the publications of the Association.

Membership Year

SEC. 7. The membership year shall be from September 1 to August 31. All membership dues paid during the membership year shall be credited to that year unless otherwise requested.

Payment of Dues

SEC. 8. The annual dues of members shall be sent to the Secretary on or before November 1. An active member failing to pay his dues as herein provided shall forfeit the privileges of membership and after being in arrears one half year be dropped from the list of members.

Membership Card

SEC. 9. The Secretary of the Association shall furnish each member of the Association a Membership Card, declaring him to be a member of the National Education Association for the year for which his dues are paid, and as such entitled to all the rights and privileges granted by the charter and bylaws of the Association.

Right to Vote

SEC. 10. The right to vote, to serve as a delegate in the Representative Assembly and to hold office in the Association or in any department thereof, shall be limited to active members whose dues are paid. The right to vote and to hold office in the Council shall be limited to members of the Council whose dues are paid.

ARTICLE II—ELECTION OF OFFICERS, REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY, AND AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

Election of Officers

SECTION 1. The election of officers and transaction of business at the annual business meeting shall be by a Representative Assembly composed of delegates apportioned, elected, and governed as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. At the first Business meeting of the Representative Assembly on the second day of the annual meeting of the Association nominations for the following offices shall be made: President, Vicepresident, and Treasurer. Candidates for said offices shall be nominated from the floor upon roll call of the states. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association the delegates of each state, territory, and district of the United States shall nominate one person for member of the Board of Directors and the name of such person shall be reported to the Representative Assembly at the first business meeting upon roll call of the states. On the fourth day of the annual meeting officers shall be elected from the candidates by the delegates to the Representative Assembly by ballot. Said ballots shall be printed and shall contain the names of all nominees as provided above. Polls for voting shall be open from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M., at such place or places as the President of the Association shall designate. The candidates for President, Treasurer, member of Board of Directors from each state, territory, or district, respectively, and the eleven candidates for the office of Vicepresident receiving the highest number of votes shall be declared elected. The President of the Association shall appoint tellers and complete all arrangements for carrying out the election. The results of the election herein provided shall be announced at the final business session of the Representative Assmbly. The officers thus chosen shall continue in office until the close of the annual meeting subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as herein provided. The Secretary and the Treasurer shall enter upon their duties at a date which shall be determined by the Board of Trustees and which shall not be later than the first of October and shall continue in office during the term for which they are separately chosen and until their successors are duly elected.

Affiliated State Associations

SEC. 3. The State Teachers Association or Educational Association of a state, territory, or district, may become affiliated with the National Education Association and shall be designated an Affiliated State Association. Each affiliated State Association shall be a state unit in the organization of the National Education Association and as such shall be entitled to representation in the Representative Assembly as hereinafter provided. The annual dues of an Affiliated State Association shall be $10 for each delegate to which said state shall be entitled, with a maximum of $100. Said Association shall receive without application, or other condition, all regular publications of the National Education Association, including the volume of Proceedings, reports of committees, and all special bulletins and announcements when issued.

Affiliated Local Associations

SEC. 4. A local educational association or teachers organization within a state, territory, or district, may affiliate with the National Education Association and shall be designated an Affiliated Local Association. Each Affiliated Local Association shall be a local unit in the organization of the National Education Association and as such shall be entitled to representation in the Representative Assembly as hereinafter provided. The annual dues of an Affiliated Local Association shall be $5, which shall entitle said Association to receive without application, or other condition, all regular publications of the National Education Association, including the volume of Proceedings, reports of committees, and all bulletins and announcements when issued.

Relationship: National, State, and Local

SEC. 5. Each Affiliated Association, both state and local, shall be furnished a certificate of membership and shall be entitled to the active assistance and support of the National Education Association in promoting the interest of such Affiliated Association and its members insofar as such interest comes within the purpose and object of the National Education Association as set forth in its charter. The Secretary of the National Education Association shall, with the advice and approval of the Executive Committee, make such arrangements for mutual cooperation between the National Education Association and the State and Local Affiliated Associations as will promote the welfare of all and advance the interests of the teaching profession.

State Delegates

SEC. 6. Each Affiliated State Association shall be entitled to elect one delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each one hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association, up to five hundred such active members, and thereafter one delegate and one alternate for each five hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association. Such delegates shall be designated State Delegates.

Local Delegates

SEC. 7. Each Affiliated Local Association shall be entitled to elect one delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each one hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association. Such delegates shall be designated Local Delegates.

Selection of Delegates

SEC. 8. Only active members of the National Education Association shall be eligible to be delegates to the Representative Assembly, and to vote in the election of delegates in a State or Local Affiliated Association. An active member shall be permitted to vote for the election of delegates in but one affiliated Local Association. For determining the apportionment of delegates, an active member may be counted in two Affiliated Associations, and no more; and that one of these shall be the State Association.

Ex Officio Delegates

SEC. 9. The officers of the National Education Association as named in the charter and the State Superintendent or Commisisoner of Education of each state, territory, and district, shall be *ex officio* delegates to the Representative Assembly. The President of the Association shall preside at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly, and the Secretary of the Association shall keep the records thereof. In case of a tie the President shall cast the deciding vote.

SEC. 10. Delegates shall file their credentials with the Secretary of the Association on blanks furnished by him for that purpose not later than ten days before the beginning of the annual meeting. The Secretary shall turn over such credentials to the Credential Committee, when appointed, with such information thereon as may be obtained from the records of the Association. The Representative Assembly shall be the final judge of the qualifications of delegates. The delegates shall have equal rights and each shall have one vote. Meetings of the Representative Assembly shall be open to the active members of the Association who shall be privileged to address the Assembly on subjects pertaining to the Association. The Representative Assembly shall adopt rules of procedure which shall not conflict with the charter and bylaws of the Association. It shall recommend an equitable plan for paying the expenses of delegates to the annual business meeting of the Association.

Delegates; Credentials; Voting; Freedom of Floor

SEC. 11. The officers shall be permitted to hold meetings other than for business purposes and expenses therefor shall be provided.

ARTICLE III—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

Duties of the President

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and shall perform the duties prescribed by the Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws, and in addition such duties as usually devolve upon the Chief Executive of such an Association. In the absence of the President, the ranking Vicepresident, who is present, shall preside and in the absence of the President and all Vicepresidents a Chairman pro tempore shall be elected under the direction of the Secretary of the Association. The President shall prepare the program for the general sessions of the annual meeting of the Association and shall have power to confer with the President of the Council and the heads of the several departments and to make such recommendations in regard to the program of the Council and the several Departments as will, in his opinion, promote the interest of the annual meeting. The President shall be a member *ex officio* of the Board of Trustees and Chairman of the Board of Directors, and the Executive Committee. He shall sign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors and all bills approved or authorized by the Executive Committee acting for and under the instruction of the Board of Directors. On the expiration of his term of office as President, he shall become first Vicepresident for the ensuing year.

Duties of the Secretary

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate record of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee, shall conduct the business of the Association as provided in the Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws and, in all matters not definitely prescribed therein, shall be under the direction of the Board of Directors or of the Executive Committee acting for the Board of Directors, and, in the absence of instructions from the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the President. He shall receive or collect all moneys due the Association and pay the same each month to the Treasurer. He shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors, or by the Executive Committee acting under the authority of the Board of Directors or by the President acting under authority of the Board of Directors or of the Executive Committee. The Secretary shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association, of the Board of Directors, and of the Executive Committee. He shall keep a list of members and shall revise said list annually. He shall be Secretary of the Board of Directors. He shall be the custodian of all the property of the Association not in charge of the Treasurer and the Board of Trustees. He shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. He shall submit his annual report to the Executive Committee not later than fifteen days before the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted to the Board of Directors at its annual meeting. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all money, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association. The Secretary shall not print, publish or distribute any official report or other document without the approval of the Board of Directors or of the Executive Committee acting under the general instruction of the Board of Directors.

Duties of the Treasurer

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall perform the duties prescribed by the Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws. He shall receive from the Secretary and, under the direction of the Board of Trustees, shall hold in safe-keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall pay the same only upon the order of the Board of Trustees, shall notify the President of the Association and the Chairman of the Board of Trustees whenever the surplus funds in his possession exceed $500; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures with vouchers for the latter; and said accounts, ending on the thirty-first day of May each year, he shall render to the Executive Committee not later than ten days before the annual meeting of the Association, and when approved by said Committee, these accounts shall be transmitted by this Committee to the Board of Directors at its meeting held in connection with the annual meeting of the Association and a copy of the report shall be transmitted to the Representative Assembly for its information. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all moneys, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association.

Duties of the Board of Directors

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall have such powers and perform such duties as are prescribed by the Act of Incorporation and by these Bylaws, shall elect corresponding members as prescribed in Section 6 of Article I of these Bylaws; shall elect members of the National Council of Education as provided in Section 3 of Article IV of these Bylaws; shall fill all vacancies in its own body and in the Board of Trustees. The Board of Directors shall approve all bills incurred by itself or by the Executive Committee, or the President or the Secretary acting under the authority of the Board of Directors; shall appropriate from the current funds of the year the amounts of money ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting of the same for the work of all special committees of research and investigation authorized and provided for at the annual business meeting, and for all other needs of the Association; shall make a full report of the financial condition of the Association including the reports of the Secretary, the Treasurer and the Board of Trustees to the Representative Assembly at its annual business meeting, and shall do all in its power to make the Association a useful and honorable institution.

The Board of Directors shall appoint at its annual meeting a budget committee for the ensuing year, whose duty it shall be to prepare and present a budget to the Board of Directors at its next meeting. The budget committee shall have authority to secure the support of the auditing committee in preparing this budget.

The Board of Directors shall meet in connection with the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly, and may meet in connection with the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence and at such other times and places as may be determined by the President or requested in writing by a majority of the elective members of the Board of Directors.

Duties of Executive Committee

SEC. 5. The Executive Committee may recommend to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting the appointment of special committees for investigation or research, the subjects for which may have been suggested by the National Council or by the active members of the National Education Association or by any of its Departments; it shall recommend the amount of money to be appropriated for such investigations. When such special committees are provided for and duly authorized by the Representative Assembly and appropriations for them have been authorized by the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee shall, under the instructions of the Board of Directors, have general supervision of them. The Executive Committee shall receive and consider all reports made by the special committees and shall print these reports and present them, together with the reports of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees, and the recommendations of the Executive Committee thereon, to the Board of Directors, which shall transmit the same with recommendations to the Representative Assembly at its annual business meeting. All such special committees shall be appointed by the President of the Association.

The Executive Committee shall fill all vacancies occurring in the body of officers of the Association, except as otherwise provided for in the Act of Incorporation or in these Bylaws.

Further Duties of Trustees

SEC. 6. The Board of Trustees shall have such powers and perform such duties as are prescribed by the Act of Incorporation, shall require of the Secretary and Treasurer bonds in such amounts as may be determined by said Board for the faithful performance of their duties; shall make a full report of the finances of the Association to the Executive Committee not later than ten days prior to the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted by the Executive Committee to the Board of Directors at the first regular meeting of the Board held in connection with the annual meeting of the Association. It shall annually choose its own chairman and secretary.

ARTICLE IV—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

Function of National Council

SECTION 1. The National Council of Education shall discuss educational questions of public and professional interest; propose to the Executive Committee, from time to time, suitable subjects for investigation and research; have a report made at its annual meeting on "Educational Progress During the Past Year"; and in other ways use its best efforts to further the objects of the Association and to promote the cause of education in general.

Membership in Council

SEC. 2. The National Council of Education shall consist of one hundred twenty regular members, selected from the active membership of the National Education Association. Any active member of the Association is eligible to membership in the Council and each member shall be elected for six years and until his successor is elected. In addition to the 120 members thus selected from the active membership the National Council may in its bylaws provide for the admission to membership of representatives from the several departments of the Association on the basis of equal representation from each department.

Election of Committee Members

SEC. 3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. The Board of Directors of the Association shall annually elect ten members and the Council ten members, and each body shall fill all vacancies in its quota of members. No state, territory, nor district in the United States shall have at one time more than seven regular members in the Council.

Time of Meeting

SEC. 4. The annual meeting of the Council shall be held during the week of the annual meeting of the Association.

Loss of Membership

SEC. 5. The absence of a regular member from two successive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to his resignation of membership. Persons whose regular membership in the Council has expired shall be denominated honorary members of the Council during the time of their active membership in the Association with the privilege of attending the regular sessions of the Council and participating in its discussions. A member who discontinues or forfeits his active membership in the Association forfeits his membership in the Council.

Council Officers

SEC. 6. The officers of the Council shall consist of a President, a Vicepresident, a Secretary, and such standing committees as may be prescribed by its bylaws, all of whom shall be regular members of the Council. The Secretary of the Council shall, in addition to performing the duties pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the Council for publication.

Bylaws and Powers of Council

SEC. 7. The National Council of Education is hereby authorized to adopt bylaws for its government not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or the bylaws of the Association; provided, That such bylaws be submitted to, and approved by, the Board of directors of the Association before they shall become operative.

SEC. 8. The powers and duties of the Council may be changed or the Council abolished upon a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly taken at the annual meeting of the Association; provided, That notice of the proposed action has been given at the preceding annual business meeting of the Association.

ARTICLE V—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. The following departments are now (1927) in existence, to wit: The departments, first, of Adult Education; second, of American Association of Teachers Colleges; third, of Business Education; fourth, of Classroom Teachers; fifth, of Deans of Women; sixth, of Elementary School Principals; seventh, of Kindergarten-Primary Education; eighth, of Lip Reading; ninth, of Rural Education; tenth, of School Health and Physical Education; eleventh, of Science Instruction; twelfth, of Secondary School Principals; thirteenth, of Social Studies; fourteenth, of Superintendence; fifteenth, of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction; sixteenth, of Visual Instruction; seventeenth, of Vocational Education. There is also the National Council of Education.

Members of Departments

SEC. 2. Each department shall have the right to fix the qualifications of its members for the purpose of electing officers and transacting the other business of the department; provided, Active members of the Association, and no others, shall be eligible to such department membership, and provided also that all active members of the Association shall be permitted to attend the professional programs and discussions of any department.

Department Meetings

SEC. 3. Each department shall hold an annual meeting at the time and place of the meeting of the Association except as otherwise provided in these bylaws or as directed by the Board of Directors, or by the Executive Committee acting under the general instructions of the Board of Directors.

SEC. 4. The object of the meetings of the departments shall be the discussion of questions pertaining to their respective fields of educational work. The programs of these meetings shall be prepared by the respective presidents in conference with, and under the general direction of, the President of the Association. Each department shall be limited to two sessions, with formal programs, unless otherwise ordered by the President of the Association, except that a third session of business or informal round-table conference may be held at the discretion of the department officers.

Object of Department Meetings

SEC. 5. The officers of each Department shall consist of a President, a Vice-president, a Secretary, and such other officers as may be deemed necessary by the Department, who shall be elected at the last formal session of the Department to serve one year and until their successors are duly elected; and who shall, at the time of their election, be active members of the Association. Each department shall provide for the creation of an Executive Committee, and assign to it any duties consistent with the purposes of the Department and the Act of Incorporation and Bylaws of the Association. In case there is a vacancy in the office of President of any Department, it shall be filled by appointment made by the Executive Committee of the Department. Any other Departmental vacancy shall be filled by appointment made by the President of the Department.

Officers of Departments

SEC. 6. The Secretary of each Department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the meetings of the Department for publication. No Department shall establish an office outside of the general headquarters of the Association without the consent of the Board of Directors.

Department Headquarters

SEC. 7. All departments shall have equal rights and privileges, with the exception stated in Section 3 of this article. They shall be named in Section 1 of this article in the order of their establishment and shall be dropped from the list when discontinued. Each department may be governed by its own regulations in so far as they are not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or these bylaws.

Rights of Departments

SEC. 8. Upon the recommendation of the Board of Directors a new department may be established by vote of two thirds of the delegates to the Representative Assembly present at any annual meeting; provided, that a written application for said Department with title and purpose of the same shall have been made at the regular meeting of the Assembly next preceding the one at which action is taken by at least 250 members engaged or interested in the field in the interest of which the department is proposed to be established; provided, that no group shall be admitted to Departmental status until it shall have held constructive meetings for at least three successive years.

How Established

A Department already established may be discontinued upon a two-thirds vote of the Representative Assembly at any business meeting provided that announcement of the purpose to discontinue has been made at the preceding annual business meeting. The Board of Directors may recommend to the Representative Assembly the discontinuance of any Department. Upon the recommendation of the Board of Directors a department which has failed to hold a regular meeting for two successive years may be discontinued by a vote of two thirds of the delegates to the Representative Assembly present at any annual meeting.

SEC. 9. Any department, by a two thirds vote of those voting at any regular business meeting, may levy a membership fee to supplement its allowance from the Association. Such membership fees shall be paid to the Secretary of the de-

Fees for Department Members

partment who shall transmit them monthly to the Secretary of the Association. Such funds shall be added to the department's allowance from the Association and shall be used for the work of said department only, and shall be disbursed upon the recommendation of the executive officers of the department in the same manner as other funds of the Association are disbursed.

ARTICLE VI—COMMITTEES

Auditing Committee

SECTION 1. Not later than five months before the end of the fiscal year, the President shall appoint an auditing committee, consisting of three active members of the Association, no one of whom shall be either a Trustee or a Director; to this Committee shall be referred the report and audit of the expert accountant or accountants, together with the communication of the President transmitting the same as provided in Section 5 of this Article; and the Committee shall report its findings to the Board of Directors.

Delegates Meet by States

SEC. 2. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, at such time and place as shall be designated on the annual program by the President of the Association, the accredited delegates to the Representative Assembly from each state shall elect one member and one alternate who are active members of the Association for each of the following committees, to serve for the ensuing year: Credentials, Resolutions, and Necrology. The Committee on Credentials shall receive the official list of delegates from the Secretary and report thereon to the Representative Assembly.

Resolutions

SEC. 3. The Committee on Resolutions shall report at the annual business meeting of Representative Assembly, and except by unanimous consent, all resolutions shall be referred to said committee without discussion. This committee shall receive and consider all resolutions proposed by active members, or referred to it by the President; some time during the second day of the annual meeting of the Association the committee shall hold a meeting, at a place and time to be announced in the printed program, for the purpose of receiving proposed resolutions and hearing those who may wish to advocate them.

Necrology

SEC. 4. The Committee on Necrology may prepare for the published Proceedings brief memorial tributes to members who have died during the year.

Examination Of Accounts

SEC. 5. Within thirty (30) days prior to the time of the annual meeting of the Association, the President shall appoint a competent person, firm or corporation, licensed to do business as expert accountants; the accountant or accountants so appointed shall examine the accounts, papers, and vouchers of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees and compare the same, shall also examine the securities of the permanent fund held by the Board of Trustees. The report of said accountant or accountants shall be filed with the President not less than ten days before the opening day of the annual meeting of the Association, and shall be by him submitted to the Auditing Committee with such comments as he may think proper.

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

Meetings to be Held Annually

SECTION 1. Stated meeting of the Association, of the Council of Education, and of all other Departments, except as otherwise provided, shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors or by the Executive Committee acting under the instructions of the Board of Directors.

Meetings of Assembly, Directors, and Trustees

Sec. 2. The annual business meeting of the Representative Assembly shall begin at 9 oclock a. m., on the second day of the annual meeting of the Association. A regular meeting of the Board of Directors shall be held in connection with the annual meeting of the Association. The time and place of such meeting shall be designated in the program. The Secretary shall notify the members of the Board of Directors of the time and place of meeting, not less than thirty (30) days before the meeting.

The first regular meeting of the new Board of Directors shall be held as soon as practicable and within twenty-four hours after the close of the last session of the annual meeting. The place and time of this meeting shall be announced in the printed program.

The Board of Trustees shall hold its annual meeting at some convenient time and immediately following the meeting of the new Board of Directors. Special meetings of the Trustees may be called by the Chairman and shall be called on request of a majority of the Board of Trustees. Due notice of all meetings of the Board of Trustees shall be given to every member of the Board by the Secretary thereof.

ARTICLE VIII—PROCEEDINGS

Publication of Proceedings

Section 1. The proceedings of the Association, of the Council, of the Departments, and of all commissions and committees, shall be published at the discretion of and under the direction of the Executive Committee provided that such publication has been approved and the money therefor appropriated by the Board of Directors.

Absence of Author

Sec. 2. No paper, lecture or address shall be read before the Association or any of the Departments in the absence of the author, without the approval of the President of the Association, or of the President of the Department interested; nor shall any such paper, lecture or address be published in the Proceedings without the approval of the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE IX—QUORUM

Formation of Quorum

Section 1. Elected directors from twenty-five states shall constitute a quorum of the Board of Directors. A majority of all the accredited delegates, representatives of not less than twenty-five states, shall constitute a quorum of the Representative Assembly.

ARTICLE X—AMENDMENTS

Amendments to Bylaws

Section 1. These bylaws may be altered or amended at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly by unanimous vote, or by a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly if the alteration or amendment shall have been proposed in writing at the annual business meeting next preceding the one at which action is taken, and due announcement of the proposed action shall have been made in the official publication of the Association.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

NOW KNOWN AS THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

CERTIFICATE

of Acceptance of Charter and Adoption of Bylaws under the Act of Congress approved June 30, 1906.

We, the undersigned, Nathan C. Schaeffer, the presiding officer, and Irwin Shepard, the Secretary of the meeting of the National Educational Association held at Los Angeles, California, on the 10th day of July, 1907, said meeting being the annual meeting of the Association held next after the passage of an act of Congress entitled "An Act to Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States,"

Do hereby certify, that at said meeting held pursuant to due notice, a quorum being present, the said Association adopted resolutions of which true copies are hereto attached, and accepted the charter of the National Education Association of the United States, granted by said act of Congress, and adopted bylaws as provided in said act and elected officers; and the undersigned pursuant to said resolutions,

Do hereby certify that the National Education Association of the United States has duly accepted said charter granted by said act of Congress, and adopted bylaws, and is the lawful successor to the National Educational Association.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto signed our names this 20th day of August, 1907.

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, *Presiding Officer.*
IRWIN SHEPARD, *Secretary.*

VERIFICATION

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE ACTIVE MEMBERS, JULY 10, 1907

1. *Resolved,* That the National Educational Association hereby accepts the charter granted by an act of Congress entitled "An Act to Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States," passed June 30, 1906, and that the President and Secretary of this meeting be authorized and directed to execute and file with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia a verified certificate showing the acceptance by the Association of the charter granted by said act.

2. *Resolved,* That the proposed bylaws of which notice was given at the annual meeting of the Association held on July 6, 1905, which are printed in full in the Journal of said meeting, be and the same are hereby adopted to take effect immediately.

3. *Resolved,* That the Association adopt as its corporate seal a circle containing the title "National Education Association of the United States," and the dates "1857-1907."

4. *Resolved,* That the Association do now proceed to elect officers, and to organize under the charter granted by the act of Congress.

Filed in the office of the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia, September 4, 1907.

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION, 1857-1870

1857—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized)
James L. Enos, Chairman.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
1858—CINCINNATI, OHIO
Z. Richards, President.
J. W. Buckley, Secretary.
A. J. Rickoff, Treasurer.
1859—WASHINGTON, D. C.
A. J. Rickoff, President.
J. W. Buckley, Secretary.
C. S. Pennell, Treasurer.
1860—BUFFALO, N. Y.
J. W. Buckley, President.
Z. Richards, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer.
1861, 1862—No session.
1863—CHICAGO, ILL.
John D. Philbrick, President.
James Cruickshank, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer.
1864—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.
W. H. Wells, President.
David N. Camp, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.
1865—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. Greene, President.
W. E. Shelton, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.
1866—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. Wickersham, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
S. P. Bates, Treasurer.
1867—No session.
1868—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. Gregory, President.
L. Van Bokkelen, Secretary.
James Cruickshank, Treasurer.
1869—TRENTON, N. J.
L. Van Bokkelen, President.
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
A. L. Barber, Treasurer.
1870—CLEVELAND, OHIO
Daniel B. Hagar, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
W. E. Crosby, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1871-1907

1871—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. Pickard, President.
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.
1872—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. White, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.
1873—ELMIRA, N. Y.
B. G. Northrup, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.
1874—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. White. President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.
1875—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. Harris, President.
M. R. Abbott, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.
1876—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. Phelps, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.
1877—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. Newall, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer.
1878—No session.
1879—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
John Hancock, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer.
1880—CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
J. Ormond Wilson, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.
1881—ATLANTA, GA.
James H. Smart, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.
1882—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
G. J. Orr, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
H. S. Tarbell, Treasurer.
1883—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. T. Tappan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.
1884—MADISON, WIS.
Thomas W. Bicknell, President.
H. S. Tarbell, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.
1885—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
F. Louis Soldan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.
1886—TOPEKA, KANS.
N. A. Calkins, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.
1887—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. Sheldon, President.
L. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.
1888—SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.
Aaron Gove, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.
1889—NASHVILLE, TENN.
Albert P. Marble, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.
1890—ST. PAUL, MINN.
J. H. Canfield, President.
W. R. Garrett, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.
1891—TORONTO, ONT.
W. R. Garrett, President.
E. H. Cook, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.
1892—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. H. Cook, President.
R. W. Stevenson, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.
1893—CHICAGO, ILL.
(International Congress of
Education.)
Albert G. Lane, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer

1894—ASBURY PARK, N. J.
Albert G. Lane. President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

1895—DENVER, COLO.
Nicholas Murray Butler, Pres.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeil, Treasurer.

1896—BUFFALO, N. Y.
Newton C. Dougherty, President.
Irwin C. Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeil, Treasurer.

1897—MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Charles R. Skinner, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeill, Treasurer.

1898—WASHINGTON, D. C.
J. M. Greenwood, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeil, Treasurer.

1899—LOS ANGELES, CALIF.
E. Oram Lyte, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeill, Treasurer.

1900—CHARLESTON, S. C.
Oscar T. Corson, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
Carroll G. Pearse, Treasurer.

1901—DETROIT, MICH.
James M. Green, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
L. C. Greenlee, Treasurer.

1902—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
William M. Beardshear, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
Charles H. Keyes, Treasurer.

1903—BOSTON, MASS.
Charles W. Eliot, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
W. M. Davidson, Treasurer.

1904—ST. LOUIS, MO.
John W. Cook, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
McHenry Rhodes, Treasurer.

1905—ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
William H. Maxwell, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
James W. Crabtree, Treasurer.

1906—No session.

1907—LOS ANGELES, CALIF.
Nathan C. Schaeffer, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
J. N. Wilkinson, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1908—

1908—CLEVELAND, OHIO
Edwin G. Cooley, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
Arthur H. Chamberlain, Treas.

1909—DENVER, COLO.
Lorenzo D. Harvey, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
Arthur H. Chamberlain, Treas.

1910—BOSTON, MASS.
James Y. Joyner, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
Arthur H. Chamberlain, Treas.

1911—SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.
Ella Flagg Young, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
Durand W. Springer, Treasurer.

1912—CHICAGO, ILL.
Carroll G. Pearse, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
Katherine D. Blake, Treasurer.

1913—SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.
Edward T. Fairchild, President.
Durand W. Springer, Secretary.
Grace M. Shepherd, Treasurer.

1914—ST. PAUL, MINN.
Joseph Swain, President.
Durand W. Springer, Secretary.
Grace M. Shepherd,, Treasurer.

1915—OAKLAND, CALIF.
(International Congress of Education.)
David Starr Jordan, President,
Durand W. Springer, Secretary.
Grace M. Shepherd, Treasurer.

1916—NEW YORK, N. Y.
David B. Johnson, President.
Durand W. Springer, Secretary.
Grace M. Shepherd, Treasurer.

1917—PORTLAND, ORE.
Robert J. Aley, President.
Durand W. Springer, Secretary.
Thomas E. Finegan, Treasurer.

1918—PITTSBURGH, PA.
Mary C. C. Bradford, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
A. J. Matthews, Treasurer.

1919—MILWAUKEE, WIS.
George D. Strayer, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
A. J. Matthews, Treasurer.

1920—SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.
Josephine Corliss Preston, Pres.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
A. J. Matthews, Treasurer.

1921—DES MOINES, IOWA.
Fred M. Hunter, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Cornelia S. Adair, Treasurer.

1922—BOSTON, MASS.
Charl Ormond Williams, Pres.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Cornelia S. Adair, Treasurer.

1923—OAKLAND-SAN FRANCISCO.
William B. Owen, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Cornelia S. Adair, Treasurer.

1924—WASHINGTON, D. C.
Olive M. Jones, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Cornelia S. Adair, Treasurer.

1925—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
Jesse H. Newlon, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Cornelia S. Adair, Treasurer.

1926—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
Mary McSkimmon, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Henry Lester Smith, Treasurer.

1927—SEATTLE, WASH.
Francis G. Blair, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Henry Lester Smith, Treasurer.

1928—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Cornelia S. Adair, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Henry Lester Smith, Treasurer.

1929—ATLANTA, GA.
Uel W. Lamkin, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Henry Lester Smith, Treasurer.

1930—COLUMBUS, OHIO.
E. Ruth Pyrtle, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OFFICERS FOR 1929-30

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North Carolina	T. Wingate Andrews, Superintendent of Schools	High Point
North Dakota	Minnie J. Nielson, 901 Fifth Ave.	Valley City
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Oklahoma	John G. Mitchell, President, Central State Teachers College	Edmond
Oregon	F. C. Fitzpatrick, Superintendent of Schools	Echo
Pennsylvania	J. Herbert Kelley, Executive Secretary, Pennsylvania State Education Association, 400 North Third Street	Harrisburg
Philippine Islands	Abdon Javier, Superintendent of Schools	Calapan, Mindoro
Porto Rico	Francisco Vizcarrondo, Assistant Commissioner of Education	San Juan
Rhode Island	Agnes M. Bacon, 121 State House	Providence
South Carolina	George W. Wannamaker, Superintendent of Schools	St. Matthews
South Dakota	N. E. Steele, Secretary, South Dakota Education Association, Room 3, Perry Building	Sioux Falls
Tennessee	P. L. Harned, Commissioner of Education	Nashville
Texas	L. W. Rogers, First Assistant State Superintendent of Schools	Austin
Utah	Arch M. Thurman, President, Utah Education Association, 1042 Ramona Avenue	Salt Lake City
Vermont	Clarence H. Dempsey, State Commissioner of Education	Montpelier
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Virginia	Robert W. House, President, Virginia State Education Association	Salem
Washington	Arthur L. Marsh, Executive Secretary, Washington Education Association, 707 Lowman Building	Seattle
West Virginia	Joseph Rosier, President, State Normal School	Fairmont
Wisconsin	Edgar G. Doudna, Secretary, Board of Normal School Regents	Madison
Wyoming	J. J. Early, Superintendent of Schools	Sheridan

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1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D. C.

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

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Joy Elmer Morgan, Publications.
Agnes Winn, Classroom Service.
Harriett M. Chase, Secretary's Office.
John K. Norton, Research.
Harold A. Allan, Business.
Charl O. Williams, Field and Legislative.
T. D. Martin, Records and Membership.

S. D. Shankland
Administrative Service and Secretary of the Department of Superintendence

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Vicepresident	Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, 1506 Arapahoe St.	Los Angeles, Calif.
Secretary	Adelaide Steele Baylor, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education	Washington, D. C.
Executive Committee	Anna Laura Force, Principal, Lake Junior High School, (Term expires 1930)	Denver, Colo.
	M. G. Clark, Superintendent of Schools (Term expires 1931)	Sioux City, Iowa
	David A. Ward, Superintendent of Schools, (Term expires 1932)	Chester, Pa.

OFFICERS OF DEPARTMENTS

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President	L. R. Alderman, Chief Service Division, U. S. Office of Education	Washington, D. C.
Vicepresident	In charge of Division of Adult Immigrant Education, Caroline Whipple, Supervisor, Bureau of Adult Education, State Department of Education	Albany, N. Y.
Vicepresident	In charge of Division of Education of the Native Born, Wil Lou Gray, Supervisor of Adult Schools, State Department of Education	Columbia, S. C.
Vicepresident	In charge of Division of Adult Secondary Education, W. H. Welsh, Director of School Extension, Grant Building, 17th & Pine Sts.	Philadelphia, Pa.
Secretary	Alonzo G. Grace, Director of Division of Adult Education, Public Schools	Cleveland, Ohio
Treasurer	Agnes Winn, Director of Division of Classroom Service, 1201 16th St.	Washington, D. C.
Executive Director	Mrs. Elizabeth C. Morriss, Director of Adult Elementary Education, County Court House	Asheville, N. C.

American Association of Teachers Colleges

(A Department of the N. E. A.)

President	George Willard Frasier, President, Colorado State Teachers College	Greeley, Colo.
First Vicepresident	E. L. Hendricks, President, Central Missouri State Teachers College	Warrensburg, Mo.
Second Vicepresident	Francis B. Haas, President, State Normal College	Bloomsburg, Pa.
Third Vicepresident	Bruce R. Payne, President, George Peabody College for Teachers	Nashville, Tenn.
Secretary-Treasurer	Charles W. Hunt, Dean, School of Education, Western Reserve University	Cleveland, Ohio

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President	J. L. Harman, President, Bowling Green Business University.	Bowling Green, Ky.
Vicepresident	L. A. Rice, Assistant in Secondary Education, State Department of Public Instruction	Trenton, N. J.
Secretary	Pattie L. Sinclair, Commercial High School	Atlanta, Ga.

Department of Classroom Teachers

President ....Eula F. Hunter, 928 College Ave..............Fort Worth, Texas
Vicepresident ....James P. Barron, 973 Los Angeles Ave. N. E..........Atlanta, Ga.
Secretary ....Faye Read, 1425 Vernon Ave.......................Pueblo, Colo.
Regional Director ......Western Section, Miriam D. Eisner, 3098 California St. (Term expires 1930)...................San Francisco, Calif.
Eastern Section, Sara H. Fahey, 405 Coram Ave (Term expires 1931)..............................Shelton, Conn.
Middle Section, Frances E. Harden, 1543 Sherwin Avenue (Term expires 1932)..........................Chicago, Ill.

Department of Deans of Women

President ....Thyrsa W. Amos, Dean of Women, University of Pittsburgh.. Pittsburgh, Pa.
First Vicepresident......Jessie Gibson, Dean of Women, Pomona College....Claremont, Calif.
Second Vicepresident....Dorothy Stimson, President, Goucher College......Baltimore, Md.
Secretary ....Floy Elliott, Dean of Girls, Central High School......Tulsa, Okla.
Treasurer ....Lydia I. Jones, Dean of Women, Michigan State Normal College ....Ypsilanti, Mich.
Headquarters Secretary..Gwladys W. Jones, 1634 Eye St................Washington, D. C.

Department of Elementary School Principals

President ....Herbert C. Hansen (Principal Talcott School), 315 Plymouth Court ....Chicago, Ill.
First Vicepresident......Eva G. Pinkston, 5652 Belmont Ave.................Dallas, Texas
Second Vicepresident....James R. Floyd, 717 Garden St...................Plainfield, N. J.
Third Vicepresident.....Mrs. Genevieve L. Stone, Principal, Whittier School........ Minneapolis, Minn.
Fourth Vicepresident....N. H. Price, Principal, Hemphill School..........Birmingham, Ala.
Fifth Vicepresident.....Mrs. Margaret M. Smith, Principal, Mitchell School..Denver, Colo.
Secretary ....Miss Cassie F. Roys, 2609 Bristol St................Omaha, Nebr.
Executive Committee....M. E. Peterson, Principal, Twentieth Street School (Term expires 1930) ....Los Angeles, Calif.
Elizabeth McCormick, Principal, Howe School (Term expires 1931)..................................Superior, Wis.
John Merrill, Principal, Lingemann School (Term expires 1932) ....Detroit, Mich.
M. Emma Brookes, Principal, Miles School (Term expires 1933) ....Cleveland, Ohio

Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education

President ....Mary Reed, Assistant Professor of Kindergarten-First Grade Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
Vicepresident ....Clara Wilson, Chairman, Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education, University of Nebraska..............Lincoln, Nebr.
Secretary-Treasurer .....Eleanore Bogan, Director, New Orleans Nursery School, 1308 Audubon St..................................New Orleans, La.

Department of Lip Reading

President ....Caroline F. Kimball, 39 Jackson St.............East Lynn, Mass.
Vicepresident ....Coralie N. Kenfield, 617 Shreve Building.....San Francisco, Calif.
Secretary-Treasurer ....Alice I. Putnam, 3610 Milam St..................Houston, Texas

Department of Rural Education

President ....Helen Heffernan, Chief, Divisoin of Rural Education, State Department of Education, P. O. Box 615......Sacramento, Calif.
Vicepresident ....George Howard, Superintendent of Rowan County Schools.... Salisbury, North Carolina
Secretary ....Katherine M. Cook, Consultant in Special Problems, United States Office of Education..................Washington, D. C.
Executive Committee....Agnes Samuelson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction (Term expires 1931).......................Des Moines, Iowa
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Mrs. Julia M. White, Principal, Steele School, Denver, Colo.
Florence E. Wolaver, 1734 Orrington Avenue, Evanston, Ill.
R. B. Woodworth, Principal, Roosevelt Junior High School, Fond du Lac, Wis.
O. R. Zoll, Superintendent of District Schools, Matoaka, W. Va.

COMMITTEE ON CREDENTIALS

Clarence W. Bosworth, Principal, Cranston High School, Auburn, R. I.
Gertrude Burke, Syracuse, N. Y.
Edwin D. Clauss, Allentown, Pa.
W. C. Cook, State Superintendent of Schools, Charleston, W. Va.
Nina Cox, Superintendent, Turner County Schools, Ashburn, Ga.
Mrs. Jennie A. Curieux, Tonopah, Nev.
Mrs. Jane Davis, Tampa, Fla.
Walter H. Davis, Secretary, Maryland State Teachers Association, Havre de Grace, Md.
C. E. Dudley, Superintendent of Schools, Henderson, Ky.
Elizabeth Edwards, Principal, Public School, Maywood, N. J.
Grady Gammage, President, Arizona State Teachers College, Flagstaff, Ariz.
Mrs. Elizabeth Geneau, Omaha, Nebr.
Loren H. Gerrish, Superintendent of Schools, South Portland, Me.
Frank L. Grove, Secretary, Alabama Education Association, Montgomery, Ala.
Harry E. Hansell, Principal, Partime High School, San Francisco, Calif.
Frances Harden, Middle Section Regional Director, Department of Classroom Teachers, Chicago, Ill.
Arthur Harris, Kealakekua, T. H.
C. J. Heatwole, Editor, *Virginia Journal of Education*, Richmond, Va.
Sarah Holbrook, Burlington, Vt.
Gabriel Houston, Clarksdale, Miss.
Mrs. Martha Hummel, Principal, Ward School, St. Anthony, Idaho.
Dana S. Jordan, Superintendent of Schools, Lisbon, N. H.
V. C. Kays, President, State Agricultural and Mechanical College, Jonesboro, Ark.
John G. Kelley, Superintendent of Schools, Bennettsville, S. C.
E. E. Lee, Brigham City, Utah.
Freida Libbee, President, Seattle Grade Teachers Association, Seattle, Wash.
Alma Loabs, Visiting Teacher, Sioux Falls, S. D.
M. Grant Lucas, Washington, D. C.
N. D. McCombs, Superintendent of Schools, Cherokee, Iowa.
W. H. Martin, District Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Mo.
Ida Murray, San Antonio, Texas.
N. C. Newbold, State Director of Negro Education, Raleigh, N. C.
R. E. Offenhauer, Superintendent of Schools, Lima, Ohio.
M. C. Palmer, Principal, Rural Normal School, Columbus, Wis.
Thomas H. Patterson, District Superintendent of Schools, Bristol, Conn.
C. V. Peterson, County Superintendent of Schools, Lafayette, Ind.
Arthur H. Rice, Managing Editor, *Michigan Education Journal*, Lansing, Mich.
C. E. Rogers, Superintendent of Schools, Johnson City, Tenn.
Mrs. Edna Rousseau, State Rural Supervisor, Santa Fé, N. M.
S. M. Shows, County Superintendent of Schools, Mansfield, La.
Harry Smalley, Fall River, Mass.
H. E. Stahl, Superintendent of Schools, Claymont, Del.
Mrs. W. L. Steyer, Muskegon, Okla.
Annis R. Telfer, Pueblo, Colo.
Crema C. Thompson, Topeka, Kans.
L. W. Turnbull, Superintendent of Schools, North Bend, Ore.
Francisco Vizcarrondo, Assistant Commissioner of Education, San Juan, P. R.
Lawrence A. Walker, Whitehall, Mont.
Mrs. Sadie Walker, Principal, Central School, Fargo, N. D.

MINUTES OF THE TENTH REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

Columbus, Ohio, June 28 to July 4, 1930

First Business Session, Tuesday, July 1, 1930

The first business session of the Representative Assembly was called to order by *Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle,* president, at 9 a. m. at the Columbus Auditorium. A short musical program was rendered by the High-School Chorus of Columbus, giving the following numbers:

Prayer of Thanksgiving	Netherland Folk Tune
To Thee O Country	Eichberg

Iowa presented an Iowa State song, bringing out a replica of a small brown house with the picture of *President Hoover* on it called "Iowa Products."

(Song: "That's Where the Tall Corn Grows.")

Following the Iowa State songs, the delegates of Kansas and Wisconsin rendered songs on behalf of their states. The audience was greatly pleased with these stunts.

The President: The Invocation at the First Business Session will be given this morning by the *Rev. W. C. Hartinger* of Columbus. (*Dr. Hartinger* stepped forward and gave the invocation.)

The President: Let us call at this time for the report of the Committee on Credentials. The Chairman, *Thomas H. Patterson* of Connecticut.

Mr. Thomas H. Patterson: (Chairman): The Committee on Credentials of the National Education Association has discharged its duties in conformity with the bylaws of the Association.

It held its meeting yesterday afternoon in the office of the Secretary at 2 p. m. and organized, by the election of a Chairman and Clerk, the meeting. The report from the Secretary's office indicated that there were nearly 900 delegates who had already registered. Peace and harmony seems to prevail not only in the states but in the local associations as well. There are no contested delegations.

A subcommittee of three members was appointed to take care of those who might register subsequent to the meeting of the Committee. It was the unanimous vote of the members of the Committee that all delegates who had registered in the Secretary's office up to the hour of the meeting, together with those who might register later and whose credentials would be passed upon favorably by the subcommittee of the Committee on Credentials, be admitted and be seated as delegates in this, our Representative Assembly. I desire to move the acceptance of this report and the adoption of the recommendation.

The motion was duly seconded by *J. W. Cooper* of Lucas County, Ohio. There being no discussion, the motion was put and carried.

The President: I shall ask our Parliamentarian, *Superintendent Pearson,* Kansas City, Kansas, at this moment to give us a statement concerning the rules of the convention.

Superintendent Pearson (Kansas): We shall adhere very strictly to the Constitution and bylaws governing this body. We shall be governed by Robert's Rules of Order. We shall endeavor not to be so technical as to impede business. We hope that fine courtesy which has always characterized these assemblies will obtain throughout the convention.

The President: Adoption of the order of business. I will ask the Secretary, *Mr. Crabtree,* to make a statement.

Secretary Crabtree: The Association is in the habit of adopting the program as prepared by the President as the order of business for the convention. It would be in order to move that this program be the order of business for this convention.

Dr. Willis A. Sutton (Georgia): I so move.

Seconded by *Mr. Abercrombie* of Alabama. There being no discussion, the motion was put and carried.

The President: As we have gone about in this great country in convention places, as hospitality has been shown to us in such marvelous ways, we wonder what the next convention can do to equal it. I am almost feeling sorry for the next city that has to match or surpass this hospitality. All Columbus and all Ohio is responsible, but it heads up in the Superintendent of Schools, *Dr. Collicott.* I am presenting him to you at this moment. (Applause.)

(*Superintendent Collicott* then made several announcements respecting the courtesy programs and entertainment that had been planned for the members and delegates. He expressed pride in having the opportunity of helping.)

The President: We will now listen to the reading of the minutes of the last Annual Session. *Secretary Crabtree.*

Secretary Crabtree: Perhaps you will not wish to have the minutes read since you have them in printed form in the Manual before you. I therefore move the adoption of the minutes as printed in the Manual.

The motion was seconded by *Willis A. Sutton,* (Georgia) and there being no discussion it was put and carried, and the minutes declared adopted.

The President: This great convention is again honored as it has been many times in the past by a return of the leading educator of the nation—the teacher's best friend through all the years. I know of no greater friend to education, to the teacher, to the parent, to the child, than our friend, *Dr. A. E. Winship.* It is a distinct privilege to present him to you this morning.

(The audience rose in greetings to *Dr. Winship.* The address is published elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

The President: We thank you, *Dr. Winship,* for this inspiring message. On the program you will notice that there are representatives, not of all the far-away places, but of a few of them. At this time I have the privilege of presenting *A. E. Karnes,* a superintendent of schools in Alaska.

(The address is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

The President: At this time I would like to announce the appointment of the Committee on Elections. Chairman, *Mr. W. T. Longshore,* Missouri; Vice-Chairman, *W. T. Ragsdale,* Tennessee; other members, *David A. Ward,* Pennsylvania; *Annie C. Woodward,* Massachusetts; *Annie Porter Leland,* New York. If they will come to the platform they will find Mr. Allan at the right, whose service is available for caring for the election. *Mr Longshore,* are you ready to make an announcement at this time?

Mr. W. T. Longshore: We are to have an election and we must have machinery set up for it. The bylaws provide that an election shall be held on the fourth day of the convention and that the balloting shall be on printed ballots. The committee has arranged to hold the election at the registration headquarters in the Exhibition Hall, which is in this building on the floor directly below. A ballot box will be placed there. The election will take place on the fourth day of the convention, which will be Thursday, the polls being open from 8 in the morning until 6 in the evening.

The procedure of voting has been made as simply as possible. Each of you have a coupon which you will present at headquarters desk on Thursday, sign the coupon and exchange it for a ballot. The ballot will be filled out simply by making an X opposite the candidate's name. Then you will place the ballot in the ballot box. Members of the committee will be present throughout the day and the committee will meet at that place at 6 p. m. to begin the counting of the ballots. The committee desires that all or as many of you as possible and are interested be present at that time and place that all may see what is being done.

The President: It seems to me nothing is more encouraging than the way the teachers are studying their problems at this time and in previous years. The chairman of the Committee on Retirement Allowances will make a report. *Miss Anna Laura Force* of Denver.

Miss Force (After presenting report): And now, *Madam Chairman,* I urge that this report be adopted.

It was moved by *Mr. Abercrombie* of Alabama, seconded by *Dr. Sutton* of Georgia, that the report be accepted, and there being no discussion the motion was put and carried.

(The report is to be printed as the November, 1930, issue of the Research Bulletin.)

The President: Another committee most important to the welfare of the teachers and the children of America has been working for seven years. The chairman gave you an excellent report last year, a report of progress. I am glad to present to you *Dr. A. L. Threlkeld,* chairman of the Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions.

(After presenting the report, *Mr. Threlkeld* moved that it be accepted. The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

The President: You have heard the report and the motion for adoption. Do I hear a second?

Mr. Holmes (New York): As a representative of New York which for two years has consistently opposed the recommendations of this committee as to a matter of representation in the delegate assembly, I take great pleasure in seconding the report as it now stands.

The President: You have heard the motion and the second. Are there any further remarks?

Mr. Ward (New Jersey): I am one of the delegation from New Jersey.

The President: I recognize *Mr. Ward* from New Jersey.

Mr. Ward: The New Jersey delegation would like to ask whether the adoption of the report means the adoption of the amendment.

The President: I will refer that, if I may, to the Chairman of the Committee, *Mr. Threlkeld.*

Mr. Threlkeld: I am not the Parliamentarian of this meeting but it is my understanding that the adoption of this report would include the amendments which I have just reported to you. They are incorporated in the report which is now before you and they constitute what might be called amendments to the amendments that were submitted to you at Atlanta.

Mr. Ward: I rise to a point of order that the adoption of a report of this kind cannot, in the nature of parliamentary procedure, be the adoption of amendments to the Constitution. We may adopt the report and it becomes a part of our proceedings. The Constitution says a proposed amendment of the Constitution shall lie over for one year. I raise that point of order for decision.

The President: I referred the first question to the Chairman because I thought he worked on this last year and the explanation could be made by him very easily. Before asking our Parliamentarian for the decision I will recognize *Mr. Threlkeld.*

Mr. Ward: May I add the statement that the report of the committee has not been in the hands of the delegates that I know of. I see two or three around here. I think in the main we are in agreement with the amendments.

Voice: Come to the microphone.

The President: I recognize *Mr. Ward* of New Jersey.

Mr. Ward: I would like to say to the delegate body through your President that I think in the main the New Jersey delegation will be in favor of these amendments, but I think it is entirely out of order and not in accordance with good procedure to adopt these amendments before we have had a chance to study them. I say further that I cannot see any harm to come from our procedure or to the Association in general if the amendments lie over for one year for us to study.

The President: May *Mr. Threlkeld,* the chairman, make a further explanation?

Mr. Threlkeld: I am not attempting to pass upon the parliamentary point that has been raised. I expected that point to come up. But I am told the same point came up a few years ago in connection with the report presented to this convention and it was ruled at that time that a change in the amendment, which amendment has laid before the body for one year, does not itself have to lie before the body for another year. Whether that is correct is for our Parliamentarian to decide.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders (Virginia): *Madam President.*

The President: I recognize *Mr. Saunders* of Virginia.

Mr. Saunders (After explanation): I move that we strike out the first line and substitute the officers as named in the Charter, and the United States Commissioner of Education, and so forth, and strike out paragraph No. 2.

The President: You have heard *Mr. Saunders'* amendment. Do I hear a second?

Miss Grosvenor (District of Columbia): Second the motion.

Mr. Pearse: I would like to understand just what the parliamentary situation is here just now. The motion has been made to adopt.

Mr. Pearse (Having proceeded to the microphone on the platform): I seek light. As I understand it this report is before the delegate assembly. It has been moved and seconded that this report lie over for one year. Am I right about that?

The President: No, a point of order was made.

Mr. Pearse: Has the point of order been decided?

The President: I am asking our Parliamentarian to give you his decision. *Mr. Pearson* of Kansas City, Kansas.

Mr. Pearson: A number of years ago at a meeting held in Milwaukee, at which the late *W. B. Owen* was president, exactly the same situation presented itself relative to the formation of the bylaws following a committee report. It was ruled at that meeting that that report could be amended. And I would therefore, rule accordingly; namely, that this report can be amended.

Mr. Ward: And voted on this year?

Mr. Pearse: Then I understand *Mr. Saunders* has made a motion that a certain amendment be made to this report and that that motion has been seconded and is now before the house. I wish to make a further amendment to the amendment. I wish to move that in Section 9 the Section be changed so as to provide that the representation of *exofficio* members be retained as it is at present, and that the first paragraph of Section 11 be modified to correspond and that the second paragraph of Section 9 be stricken from the report.

Mr. Saunders: I will accept that in lieu of the amendment offered by me.

Mr. Pearse: I second your amendment.

The President: I recognize our first Vicepresident.

Mr. Uel W. Lamkin (Missouri): I rise to suggest that amendments which are to be considered by this representative assembly shall be submitted in writing, with enough duplicate copies to furnish all members of the delegate assembly, and I move that further consideration of this report be postponed until unfinished business on tomorrow morning when printed copies can be distributed.

Voices: Second the motion!

The President: You have heard the motion and the second. Are there any remarks?

Miss Frances Harden: Madam Chairman.

The President: I recognize *Miss Harden* of California.

Voice: No, Chicago, Illinois.

The President: I beg pardon. *Miss Harden* of Chicago.

Miss Frances Harden (Illinois): *Mr. Holmes* was given the privilege a few minutes ago of seconding the motion of the chairman of the Committee on the Appointment of Delegates. He was granted permission because for one reason he was the man who protested against the report in Atlanta which provided that 100 members, or major fraction thereof, should be the smallest number for the selection of delegates. As the one who protested against the other point, the question of *exofficio* representation in the delegate body, I wish the same privilege that *Mr. Holmes* had, the privilege of seconding the motion of the chairman of the Committee and hoping that the Committee's report will be adopted as presented.

The President: You have before you *Mr. Lamkin's* motion. Are you ready for the question? You have heard the motion that the further discussion of this question be postponed, until tomorrow morning when typewritten copies will be distributed. If the motion passes the question will again be taken up under unfinished business.

The motion was thereupon put, and the President being uncertain of the result, a rising vote was called for and the motion declared carried.

The President: I am going to ask *Superintendent Threlkeld,* the Chairman of this Committee, to make a statement about this printed report because I am not sure you all have it in your hands.

Mr. Threlkeld: It has been printed in sufficient quantities for all of you and I am going to ask the Boy Scouts to get in touch with *Mr. Allan*—here is a quantity of them, and see that they are distributed so that everybody has a copy of this report.

I recognize *Miss Annette Abbott,* who has come to the platform.

Miss Annette Abbott (Nebraska): I am bringing greetintgs to *Miss Pyrtle* from our Lincoln Forum in this basket of flowers.

(She presented *Miss Pyrtle* with a beautiful basket of flowers.)

The President: May I thank the Lincoln, Nebraska, School Forum and *Miss Abbott,* and all other members through you, for this floral tribute to this convention.

We are now ready to go on and hear the report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education. I am pleased to present its Chairman, *Dr. James Edward Rogers* of New York. *Mr. Rogers.*

Mr. Rogers (After presenting report): I move the adoption of this report.

The President: You have heard the motion to adopt the report of the Joint Committee on Health Education.

Mr. Givens (California): Second the motion.

There being no discussion, the motion was put and carried.

(The report is presented elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

The President: Mr. Eberhart.

Mr. Eberhart: I would like to suggest, in view of the extensive business yet to be taken care of by the Assembly, that we proceed to the nominations of officers and have the next item postponed until tomorrow morning.

The President: May I state for the benefit of the gentleman that the next report, the Report on Tenure, has been made to you in printed form in the absence of the Chairman because of illness. I was just about to ask the Secretary to make that statement. Did you make a motion?

Mr. Eberhart: No.

The President: That was a suggestion. Then at this time I will ask the Secretary to make that explanation and a few necessary announcements and I assure you that we are going to hurry along to that very important item of business, the nomination of officers.

Secretary Crabtree: The Chairman of the Committee on Tenure has presented a brief report which is in your hands. It is simply a report of progress. The Committee asks leave to go on and complete its report next year. I am moving for the Chairman that this tentative report be accepted and placed on file.

The motion was seconded and, there being no discussion, was put and carried.

(*Secretary Crabtree* thereupon made sundry announcements which are not incorporated in the record.)

Secretary Crabtree: A year ago at Atlanta there was a petition presented by the Economics people requesting the creation of a Department of Home Economics, the petition being signed by more than the requisite number of names and all requirements having been complied with; the Board of Directors recommend that the Department be created. Those interested in the matter wish to have us vote upon the question at once. The members of the Home Economics Association are to hold a big reception tonight and would like to have action taken on their request at this time. So a motion would be in order.

Mr. Glennie (New Jersey): *Madam President.*

The President: Mr. Glennie of New Jersey.

Mr. Glennie: Because this group is well organized, because it has met all the formal requirements of the petitioning organization for membership as a department, and because there is no doubt that it is a field of activity that is within the life of educational power and the practise of education today, I take pleasure in moving that the Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics be created as a department of the National Education Association.

The President: You have heard *Mr. Glennie's* motion.

Miss Grosvenor (District of Columbia): Knowing what I do about this Department, I take great pleasure in seconding the motion just made.

Mr. Holmes: I take pleasure also in seconding the motion.

The question being called for, the motion was put and carried.

The President: We are now ready to proceed with the nominations of officers of the Association for the next year. Nominations for President are in order. The Secretary will call the roll by states.

(*Secretary Crabtree* thereupon called the roll of states.)

Secretary Crabtree: Alabama.

The President: I recognize *Mr. Judd* of Alabama.

Mr. Judd: Last April at the annual meeting of the Alabama Educational Association the delegates to this assembly were instructed to present at this time for the consideration of this body for the Presidency of the National Education Association, Alabama's favorite and distinguished son, *Dr. John W. Abercrombie.* At that time we did not know of the candidacy of Georgia's favorite son. At the request of *Dr. Abercrombie* no campaign has been made in his interest. Since the meeting of the Alabama Educational Association, and particularly after coming here and learning the seriousness with which Georgia is courting the hand of this body, Alabama recognizing Georgia's nearness and friendliness, has decided to withdraw *Dr. Abercrombie's* name in favor of the one Georgia will later nominate. But it gives notice, my friends, that at a later and more appropriate time Alabama will again present the name of *Dr. Abercrombie* for your consideration for this high honor.

The President: Continue the roll call.

Arizona: Arizona yields to West Virginia.

The President: Mr. Cook of West Virginia.

Mr. Cook: I first desire to express our appreciation of the courtesy of Arizona in yielding to West Virginia. And in this vital moment, latent with tremendous possibilities, with a limitation of three minutes for nominating speeches, West Virginia pauses to pay tribute to the favorite sons of other states whose names have been or may hereafter be presented to this Convention.

West Virginia recognizes that splendid professional spirit which promotes educational leaders in every American commonwealth. She attests her admiration for the unwavering loyalty prompting such devotion and assures this greatest assembly that she too has a favorite son in whom she has special pride. Since West Virginia extends further north than Pittsburgh, she has been called the most northern of the

Southern States; as her limits reach eastward to the national capital, she is said to be the most eastern of the western states; her southern border is south of Richmond, Virginia, making her the most southern of the northern states; toward the setting sun the state lies far out beyond Cleveland, Ohio, which indicates that she is the most western of the eastern states. On account of this geographical relationship, these outside contacts and associations with other states, she appreciates the problems affecting education generally throughout the nation.

Therefore, ladies and gentlemen, whether you as delegates come from the north, the south, the east, or the west, you have the assurance that West Virginia is of you and for you. West Virginia has in the past and is now making a real and vital contribution to the educational advancement which has been due in large measure to the vision, the devotion, and enterprise of her educational leaders. Among these is a man who has stood in the front ranks of educational progress in the state and nation for a third of a century, for more than two decades. Through active participation on important committees of the National Education Association and as one of its officers, he has acquired that intimate knowledge of the problems, the objectives, and the issues of the organization which preeminently fit him for the presidency.

He has been a teacher in a one-room school, principal of graded schools, county superintendent, city superintendent, classroom teacher in college, and for many years has given expert instruction and advice to the high-school and teacher training groups. Ripe in experience, broad in vision, strong in convictions, and full of wisdom in administrative affairs, West Virginia's candidate possesses the poise, the dynamic personality, and the executive force which this Association needs and has a right to demand of its President.

Therefore, ladies and gentlemen, in this wonderful city of the central west, in the land that gave civilization its great public school system, and to you, the greatest delegate convention in all the world, West Virginia presents for the presidency of the National Education Association a man who has not missed a meeting, winter or summer, for twenty years, the head of the Fairmont State Teachers' College, *Joseph Rosier.*

Arkansas: Arkansas yields to California.

The President: Superintendent *Gwinn* of San Francisco, California.

California (*Superintendent Gwinn*): California is deeply indebted to Arkansas for the privilege and honor of presenting a name that we all will delight to honor and to see as the next President of the Association. California is also appreciative of the courtesy of Alabama in withdrawing the name of her native son, her favorite son, in order that the south might have a united support of the candidate that I am to name.

I will not hold you in suspense. The man that I am to name for California and for the National Education Association is that fearless executive and leader of the public schools of Atlanta, Georgia—*Superintendent Willis A. Sutton.*

By practice and by common consent, the next President of the National Education Association is to be a man. *Dr. Sutton* is a man in all the fine meanings that go with that term. He is red-blooded, two-fisted, courageous. He is cultivated, courteous, and human. He is a great executive. Also, *Dr. Sutton* is a superintendent of schools. This year we have a principal as a president. Last year we had the president of a teachers' college as president. The preceding year we had a classroom teacher as president. A year before that we had a state superintendent of public instruction as president. It is time now to make a superintendent of a city school system the president of the National Education Association. *Dr. Sutton* has had a large part in the work of the National Education Association and especially the Department of Superintendence, where for many years he was Chairman of the Committee on Health. He has during the past year been Vicepresident, having received the largest vote. And last year we all remember the wonderful management that made the meeting at Atlanta such a successful convention.

Therefore, on behalf of California, it gives me a very great deal of pleasure to nominate for the presidency of the National Education Association *Superintendent Willis A. Sutton* of Atlanta, Georgia.

The President: The Secretary will continue the roll call.

Delaware: Delaware desires to second the nomination of *Willis A. Sutton.*

Florida: Florida has no delegate. We are pleased to second and support our nextdoor neighbor, *Willis A. Sutton.*

Idaho: Idaho seconds the nomination of *Willis A. Sutton* of Georgia.

Louisiana: Louisiana is proud to second the nomination of one of the outstanding educators in the south, *Dr. Sutton.*

Montana: Montana supports Georgia's candidate.

New Jersey: New Jersey wishes to second the nomination of *Dr. Willis A. Sutton* of Georgia.

New Mexico: New Mexico supports the candidate of Georgia.

New York: New York seconds the nomination of *Mr. Rosier.*

North Carolina: North Carolina seconds the nomination of *Dr. Sutton.*

Ohio: Ohio seconds the nomination of *Dr. Sutton.*

Oklahoma: Oklahoma seconds the nomination of *Dr. Sutton.*

Porto Rico: Porto Rico seconds the nomination of *Dr. Sutton.*

Virginia: Virginia seconds the nomination of *Joseph Rosier.*

The President: Mr. Alfriend of Georgia.

Mr. Alfriend (Georgia) : In behalf of other Americans, Georgia desires to second the nomination of California in presenting to you a leader who knows every phase of public education from the one-room rural school to the efficient city high school in one of the greatest cities in the south. We do not offer his name because he was born in Georgia, and yet is a son of whom any state may be proud. We do not offer his name because he lives in the South, and yet we would remind you that the Father of our country, George Washington, was born in Virginia, and that the hallowed land of this great state of Ohio, which is so hospitably receiving us, and these other four great states here in the Northwest, were won for the flag of this nation by a son of Virginia who led the soldiers here and who planted the Stars and Stripes yonder on the Mississippi. Two great principles were declared in the Ordinance of 1787; that these great states carved from the Northwest Territory should forever be free and not slave, and that the sixteenth parcel of land allotted in all that land should be held for education. This was signed by Thomas Jefferson, a son of the South.

We offer him to you because he has a brain as great as his splendid body. We offer him to you because he has a vision of educational progress as broad as this great universe. We offer him to you as a man that has a heart that beats in such strong throbs for the boyhood and the girlhood of America that even those in the choir of the invisible may keep tune with his rhythmic quality. *Willis A. Sutton* of Atlanta lives to win victories for humanity. Make him your president and he will lead this great Association to greater victory of equal opportunity and rights.

The President: We will now proceed with the nomination of Vicepresidents.

Secretary Crabtree: We are now calling the roll for nominations for Vicepresident and for Treasurer.

(As the roll call proceeded the following nominations were made.)

Alabama: Alabama has the honor to present to you for consideration for the office of Vicepresident a man who has a long and distinguished record of educational service, who needs no extolling here, *Dr. John W. Abercrombie* of Alabama.

Arizona: Arizona—may we say the land of sunshine and flowers—has the pleasure of presenting the name of *E. W. Montgomery,* Principal of the great Union High School of Phoenix and Dean of the Junior College.

California: California presents for Vicepresident *Mrs. Eugenia West Jones.*

Connecticut: Connecticut presents the name of *Dr. Ernest W. Butterfield,* formerly Commissioner of Education for New Hampshire, now coming into Connecticut.

District of Columbia: The District of Columbia nominates *Dr. J. Orin Powers,* president of the District of Columbia Education Association, for Vicepresident.

Louisiana: Louisiana takes pleasure in submitting the name of *Miss Amy Hinrichs* of New Orleans, Louisiana, for Vicepresident of the National Education Association.

Maine: Maine takes great delight in nominating *Miss Florence M. Hale.*

New Hampshire: New Hampshire wishes to second the Nomination of *Dr. Ernest W. Butterfield.*

New Jersey: New Jersey appears before you at this moment not in a spirit of combatancy and militancy but in an appealing mode. We appeal to you for your support of *Mr. George C. Baker* as Vicepresident of the National Education Association, now president of the teachers' association of our state, a progressive educator, and a Christian gentleman.

New York: New York as usual has the habit of having a candidate for office. The Empire State takes pride and pleasure in renominating *Dr. Holmes,* Superintendent of Schools of Mt. Vernon, for the office of Vicepresident of this organization.

Oregon: I come before you to speak not only for the state of Oregon as it now stands but for that great area in the northwest that formerly constituted the old Oregon and now constitutes many states, and in behalf of our great northwest I am happy to present a man of outstanding educational ability in our section of the country, *Mr. Edgar H. Whitney,* Assistant Superintendent of Schools at Portland, Oregon.

Pennsylvania: The Keystone State, ever in its conspicuous place, comes before you to place in nomination for Vicepresident of this great organization *Miss Jessie Gray* of Philadelphia. *Miss Gray* is President of the Philadelphia Teachers' Association, a woman who has worked long and efficiently in the National Education Association. She is safe, sane, consistent, sympathetic, and untiring in her efforts. We bespeak from this great Association your support.

The President: I recognize *Miss Harden* of Illinois.

Miss Frances Harden (Illinois): I just want to second the nomination of *Miss Gray* of Pennsylvania. *Miss Gray* is not only an outstanding classroom teacher but she has served Pennsylvania in many ways. At one time she was president of the state teachers' association and the only woman who ever served in that capacity.

Porto Rico: Porto Rico takes great pleasure in presenting to you the name of *Dr. Francisco Vizcarrondo,* for Vicepresident. *Mr. Vizcarrondo* is the gentleman who stands for education in Porto Rico more than any other gentleman.

Mr. Saunders: I desire to place in nomination at this time a gentleman who has served this Association faithfully and well, has served it in such a manner that he deserves credit and your consideration. I take great pleasure in presenting to you for reelection *Henry Lester Smith* for the office of Treasurer of this great Association.

Wisconsin: Wisconsin places in nomination *Miss Elizabeth McCormick* for Vicepresident. She is a former president of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, and now principal of a ward school at Superior, Wisconsin.

The President: You have heard the nominations that will be placed upon the ballot for Vicepresident and Treasurer. I heard only one nomination for Treasurer.

Secretary Crabtree: The Directors of the Association have been nominated by the meeting of delegates of the states and I hold a list of the names in my hand. If no objection we shall place these names on the ballot without reading them now. (There were no objections.)

The President: Mr. Tyree of Indiana is on the platform to make a nomination. We seem to hurry a little bit fast. I didn't want to do that. We want plenty of time to do the business.

Mr. Tyree (Indiana): We are very happy that our friend from Virginia has nominated our favorite son of Indiana. This happened last year. His state appreciates the honors that the Association has extended to him and that which is about to be extended to him again. *Dr. Smith* has handled the funds of the N. E. A. for five years and has accounted for every cent. He is a gentleman, a great leader, a great educator, courteous, kindly and known internationally as one of the great outstanding administrators of education.

The President: Is there further business to come before this convention this morning? If not, with your permission we will stand adjourned until our session tomorrow morning at nine oclock. The session is adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary.*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President.*

Second Business Session, Wednesday, July 2, 1930

The meeting opened at nine a. m. with a short musical program rendered by the Elementary School Chorus of Columbus, consisting of the following numbers:

My Own United States
Flag of Our Native Land
Blue Birds

A group from the Oregon delegation came on the stage. One of their number acted as spokesman and after making a short address said: "I am going to ask *President Pyrtle* to come to the stage for just a few moments if she will kindly do so. (*Miss Pyrtle* came to the stage.) At this time it gives me great pleasure on behalf of the educational forces of Oregon to present to you, *President Pyrtle,* this token of our love and esteem."

(*President Pyrtle* was presented with a very beautiful green silk parasol trimmed with wreaths of fresh roses.)

Oregon then sang a song, "Sweethearts."

Maine followed with state songs.

Nebraska followed with a song and also rolled out on the stage what appeared to be a huge ear of corn. After the huskers accompanying it had stripped down the husks it opened up and out stepped a beautiful woman holding aloft the banner of Nebraska.

Illinois sang a song for Illinois and showed a large beautiful banner inviting the National Education Association in 1933.

Illinois: Chicago and Illinois claim to be the pioneer in this 1933 business. We have not said anything about 1934 but we claim 1933 was original with us. The rest of the world is coming to Chicago in 1933. Why not you?

Colorado sang a song of Colorado, carrying a banner inviting the National Education Association to meet in Denver, 1931. The audience was requested to join in the chorus of the song "Colorado," copy of which had been distributed to each delegate present.

The President: I am sure that I represent all of you in expressing appreciation for the delightful music furnished us from time to time, and especially that provided by the children this morning and at other times.

It was your express wish yesterday that we take up the report which was under discussion, of which Committee *Superintendent Threlkeld* of Denver is Chairman, the Committee on the Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions. I will ask the Chairman, *Superintendent Threlkeld,* to bring the matter before us at this time.

Mr. Threlkeld: Now considering all these matters has caused me to feel justified in stating my motion as follows:

I move the acceptance of the report, the amendment to the bylaws to proceed in the regular order, which I understand to be that we would vote on those changes next year. My motion is to accept the report.

Voices: Second the motion.

The President: You have heard the motion of the Chairman for the acceptance of the report, the revision of the bylaws to go in the regular manner.

Mr. Holmes (New York): *Madam Chairman.*

The President: I recognize *Mr. Holmes* of New York.

Mr. Holmes: Yesterday I seconded this motion. We all believe in democracy and the object of the opposition to the first report of this Committee was to get more democracy. They have modified that report so that we are bound to be more democratic if their report is accepted in this great assembly so that a group of teachers in a village as small as four or five thousand can be directly represented here each year. Now if we are going to be more democratic we should be willing that this report should be given enough consideration so that everybody will be satisfied that he has had full time to consider it. Therefore, in seconding the motion to accept this report, I move, if necessary, that it be laid over—laid on the table for one year further consideration with the idea it shall be printed and sent to the delegate assembly members.

The President: I take it that was in *Mr. Threlkeld's* original motion, that it implied that. Am I right, *Mr. Chairman?*

Mr. Threlkeld: Yes, except that that does not involve laying the report on the table.

Mr. Holmes: For one year.

Mr. Threlkeld: If the report is laid on the table for one year, then it is not accepted here as I understand. That is, I believe, *Mr. Holmes* really means we will not vote upon the changes for one year. Is that your idea? If we lay the report on the table at this time, then the report is not accepted at this meeting.

Mr. Holmes: I don't see how you can accept the report until you have deliberated on it, as you seem to wish to do, and I think it should be laid on the table for further consideration with the idea of accepting it next year if we approve it, and making modifications if we so desire, and I so move it be laid on the table for one year. The Chairman of the Committee states that that means that these bylaws cannot be voted on for two years. I haven't studied that thing through, so I don't know whether there is any way of speeding it up or not. If there is I approve of it. If there isn't I don't approve having this report accepted until we have had sufficient time to deliberate on all its points. We are not suffering at all at the present time with the Delegate Assembly as large as it is. All I want is more democracy and let us get at it. Let us take time to get it.

The President: I am anxious that you have a clear understanding of what the Chairman is trying to give us and also of this solution to it that *Mr. Holmes* is anxious to cooperate with, so I am hesitating that we may all understand one another. This motion was not seconded.

Rhode Island: Madam President, I seconded the motion.

The President: I had not heard the second over here until I recognized *Mr. Pearse.* If you will permit me I will allow that to stand.

Mr. Pearse: My only purpose in coming to the platform was to see if we could not get this thing disposed of and get to the other business. I think if you will allow me to make a motion that the report be received, that would simply mean it would lie on the table without the formal statement to lie on the table; that the report be received in accordance with the rules, be considered fairly and acted upon next year. I, therefore, move that the report be received.

The President: I recognize our Chairman.

Mr. Threlkeld: I want to second the motion, that being exactly the motion that I made. I don't see any difference between a report being received and a report being accepted. Therefore, I am glad to second that motion, my understanding being it leaves the Representative Assembly free to vote upon these changes next year, vote them up or down as it sees fit.

(The entire Assembly called for the question.)

The President: All right. The chairman appreciates that you are anxious to expedite business. If the motion passes, the amendments to the bylaws can be voted upon in 1931.

The motion being called for, the same was put and carried.

The President: We will proceed to the next item of business. I am going at this time to ask our local chairman, *Dr. Collicott,* to make a statement.

(*Dr. Collicott* thereupon made announcements relative to the courtesy program for entertaining the respective delegates.)

The President: I am sure that each person present will appreciate not being late for luncheon today. We are anxious to accept this wonderful hospitality, and to accept it on time, and to that end I am expecting that the program now will go on so that we will get through early. The speakers have been invited to be brief and I am sure that you will appreciate that they are going to give you a great message in the very short time allowed them.

Our first speaker this morning, as printed on the program, is the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, *Dr. Walter R. Siders.* (The address is printed elsewhere in the volume. See index.)

The President: I am sure this educational body feels that there is nothing more important than the emphasis, the stressing, the working out of the solution of international relations. Hence the emphasis on this program. I am sure you are grateful to *Dr. Siders* for his fine address.

This association is indeed fortunate to have as its Chairman of International Relations a woman who is worldminded. I have the pleasure of presenting to you the Chairman of the Committee on International Relations to give us her report. *Miss Annie Carleton Woodward,* Somerville, Massachusetts.

Miss Woodward (After presenting report which is printed elsewhere—see index): I offer this report as a report of progress. Therefore, I recommend that it be accepted.

The President: You have heard the Chairman's able presentation of this report and she moves its acceptance. I recognize *Mrs. Bradford* here to second the motion and *Dr. Thomas* also.

The motion was thereupon put, unanimously carried, and the report declared adopted.

The President: Yesterday we heard from our far away neighbor in Alaska. This morning we are going to hear from Hawaii. *Mr. Victor M. Aitken* of Honolulu, will represent Hawaii, instead of *Mr. W. C. Crawford,* as printed in the program. *Mr. Aitken.*

(The address is printed elsewhere in the volume. See index.)

The President: I am sure I voice your feelings when I commend that address and when I say we all love Hawaii.

I am complying with a request and I know it will please you, to present at this time a citizen who lives in Youngstown, Ohio, but who is really a world citizen—Mr. Van Kirk of Youngstown, Ohio. I am sorry there isn't time to have an address from him.

Mr. Van Kirk (Waving a large flag of original design): The standard of a federated world brotherhood.

The President: We will next listen to the report of the Committee to Cooperate with the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools. I have the pleasure of presenting its Chairman, *Mr. N. C. Newbold,* who is Director for the State Division of Negro Education, Raleigh, North Carolina.

The report was presented. (It is printed elsewhere in the volume. See index).

Mr. Newbold: Madam President, if it is in order, I move the adoption of this report.

Mr. Lucas (D. C.): Second the motion.

The motion was put, carried, and the report declared adopted as given.

The President: One of the very important new committees, or one very important new commitee of the Association this year authorized by the Delegate Assembly in your session at Atlanta last summer was a Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. By some error the report has been omitted from the program. I want to suggest that it be called for tomorrow morning. *Mr. Hugh D. Bradford* of California is the Chairman of this Committee.

We regret to say that *Dr. Davidson,* the chairman of the committee scheduled to present the next item printed in your program, is not with us today because of illness. His interest is here. His colleague and friend is here, *Dr. Finegan,* a long time worker and helper to this efficient Chairman, who will give the report for the committee. I take pleasure in presenting *Dr. Finegan.*

(The report was presented. It is printed elsewhere in the volume. See index.)

Mr. Finegan: I am submitting this report covering these three points by unanimous consent of the Legislative Commission. *Madam President,* I move the acceptance of the report.

The President: You have heard this fine report and the motion that we accept the report. I await a second.

Mrs. Bradford: Second the motion.

The motion was thereupon put, carried, and the report declared adopted as given.

The President: It seems that the need of a nationwide study on the enrichment of human life was pertinent at this time and last fall a national committee was appointed and also state commissions. I need not explain to you. We are indeed fortunate to have as the chairman of that work *Dr. Alderman,* President of the Department of Adult Education, and Chief of the Service Division of the United States Office of Education at Washington. I am pleased to call upon that Chairman now for a report progress.

Dr. Alderman presented the report. (It is printed elsewhere in the volume. See index.)

The President: You have listened to this valuable report and the motion by the Chairman that it be accepted. Do I hear a second?

Maryland: Second the motion.

The motion being put, was unanimously carried, and the report declared accepted as made.

(Some announcements by *Mr. Collicott* followed, and the meeting adjourned, the delegates going to the courtesy luncheons.)

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President*

Third Business Session, Thursday, July 3, 1930

A short musical program was rendered by the Junior High School Chorus of Columbus:

On, O Thou Soul ....Tschaikowsky
Thanksgiving Chorale ....Cruger

California, represented by a large delegation, the men and women dressed in Spanish costume, sang a song of California, inviting the N. E. A. to Los Angeles for 1931.

The meeting was formally called to order at 9:45 a. m. by the President.

The President: Will the audience please come to order. We are presenting the *Reverend Doctor A. R. Brown,* who will lead us in prayer.

(*Dr. Brown* gave the invocation.)

The President: I am sure I voice your appreciation when I again state how grateful we are for the lovely entertainment which we have had from time to time. I know how much you appreciate the beautiful program which preceded the regular opening this morning.

I am pleased to announce what is in this little note here from our efficient

Miss Chase. She says, that the delegates registered up to this time number 1210—the largest enrolment of delegates in the history of the Association.

I was so pleased a moment ago to receive this telegram that I am going to pass it on to you. It was meant for you anyway. It is signed *"Dengler."* It is from California. As you know, it is from *Dr. Paul Dengler,* who flew back to his work in the summer school at Berkeley, California. The telegram reads:

> "Safely returned Berkeley. Appreciate deeply the honor of having addressed the National Education Association convention. Convey heartiest wishes for further success of Columbus meeting.
>
> DENGLER.

I voice and echo the sentiments of all citizens in central Nebraska, particularly in Dawson County, when I say that the city superintendent there for so many years, and the one who was there when I finished high school, has left his impression on the lives of the people of that state. He is now a distinguished citizen of Ohio, retired because of age and living in Manchester. I am honored, and this convention is honored by his being on the platform. I take pleasure in presenting to you *Dr. J. K. Stapleton,* educator, writer, and outstanding citizen. (*Dr. Stapleton* bowed in recognition of the honor shown him.)

We have with us again this morning a Nebraska song bird. We are proud of our birds in Nebraska. Ours is an agricultural state. Our prosperity depends on the crops but our happiness comes from our Nebraska song birds. Your happiness this morning will be increased, I am sure, because my friend, *Mrs. M. C. Lefler,* Lincoln, Nebraska has consented to sing. She will be accompanied by a local accompanist, *Mrs. Showfut.*

Mrs. Lefler: I am going to sing three songs for you this morning, "Mr. Robin," "Sonny of Mine," and "Birthday."

The President: I am most pleased to present to this audience *José Padin,* Commissioner of Education of San Juan, Porto Rico, who will speak to us briefly of one of our family, "The Porto Rican People," *Commissioner Padin.*

(The address is printed elsewhere in the volume. See index.)

The President: May I say to you that we have, up until within a few days, expected the presence of the President of the United States for the Fourth of July and it is his deep regret that conditions in Washington are such as to make it impossible for him to come. How fortunate to have *Dr. John Finley,* Associate Editor of the *New York Times,* for the Fourth of July address since the President could not come. The pageant will be a citizenship and a patriotic demonstration. Let all be at the stadium tomorrow.

I have the extreme pleasure this morning of presenting to you the chairman of an important committee, who is going to make to you a report of progress, our friend, *Mrs. Hugh D. Bradford, of California.*

Mrs. Hugh D. Bradford: I am sure that under the circumstances you will pardon the informality of the report this morning.

A Joint Committee appointed by *President E. Ruth Pyrtle* and *Mrs. S. M. N. Marrs,* former President of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, was appointed to consider the field of cooperation between the two organizations. The committee was composed of seven members from each organization. The committee is as follows: Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford of Colorado, Mrs. W. W. Day of Nebraska, Mrs. Bertha Armbruster of Illinois, Mr. R. G. Jones of Ohio, Mr. Joy Elmer Morgan of the District of Columbia, Mr. C. E. Teach of California, Mrs. G. H. Wentz of Nebraska, Newell Edson of New York, Mrs. E. C. Mason of Massachusetts, E. W. Frost of Arkansas, Mrs. Jessie Charters of Ohio, Miss Agnes Harris of Alabama, Dr. Ada Hart Arlitt of Ohio and Mrs. Ruth Bradford of California.

(*Mrs. Bradford* gave an oral report of progress.)

The President: Dr. Buckingham, the Chairman of the Committee on the Economic Status of the Teacher, is abroad. He has not yet returned, so *Dr. J. K. Norton* of the Research Division of the N. E. A., will present the report.

(The report is printed elsewhere in the volume. See index).

The President: You have heard the report and the motion that the committee be continued. The motion being duly seconded, it was voted upon and carried, the report declared accepted and the committee continued.

I am presenting *Mrs. Mary D. Bradford* of Kenosha, Wisconsin, Chairman of the Committee on Necrology, for a report.

Mrs. Mary D. Bradford: At the meeting of the National Education Association at Asbury Park twenty-five years ago, *Theodore Roosevelt,* then President of the United States, in an address before the Assembly, paid a memorable tribute to teachers. (Read the tribute.)

These are the words of the great statesman-soldier, *Theodore Roosevelt,* spoken in 1905. Such an estimate as this of the importance of the teacher to national welfare and progress must inspire in the living renewed devotion to the great work they are doing. It also suggests the first reason for the existence of the National Committee, which I represent. It is to take note of those whom death has removed from the great social service army, which, according to the words just quoted, constitutes the first line of defense for our nation, and to do them the honor of having their names placed in the permanent necrology records of this organization.

The lists contain the names of upwards of one thousand men and women who have passed away since our last convention. Since preparing this report, word has come of the tragic death in an auto accident of *Dr. Frank Boynton,* Superintendent of Schools of Ithaca, New York, and a recent President of the Department of Superintendence.

Besides the purpose of honoring teachers for their important service, there is another reason for such a report as this. It is a tacit recognition of a great truth, namely, the universality of the desire in human beings to be remembered. This desire is not confined to the great and illustrious who "by storied urn or animated bust" have their memories perpetuated where "pealing anthems swell the note of praise," but manifests itself in inscriptions on the lowly tombstones, which "the place of fame and elegy" supplies. This desire is common among human beings. The poet Gray calls it "the voice of nature." My gratitude grows with the years toward that eighth grade teacher who taught me with other children of a large class Gray's *Elegy* and fixed in our memories its eight stanzas. Two stanzas come to mind to serve here my need:

For who to dumb forgetfulness a prey,
This pleasing anxious being e'er resigned,
Left the warm precincts of the cheerful day,
Nor cast one longing, ling'ring look behind?

On some fond breast the parting soul relies,
Some pious drops the closing eye requires;
E'en from the tomb the voice of Nature cries,
E'en in our ashes live their wonted fires.

In reverent memory of our departed fellow workers and in gratitude to them all for the "lives made better by their presence," we will close with a few words that seem to be appropriate for this occasion—sentences selected from a revered source, filled with the enduring wisdom of the ages. I ask the audience to rise while I read them:

(The audience arose and remained standing during the reading of the following lines):

> There are those who have left a name behind them and their
> remembrance is sweet.
> And there are some who have no memorial,
> But their righteousness has not been forgotten, and the glory
> of their work cannot be blotted out.
> Their bodies are buried in peace, but their name liveth
> forever more.
> The people will tell of their wisdom and the congregation
> will show forth their praise.
> Though a good life hath but few days, yet a good name
> endureth forever,
> When it is present men take example of it, and when it is
> gone they earnestly desire it,
> For the memorial of virtue is immortal, because it is known
> with God and men.

(The list of names reported may be found elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

The President: Shall we pass to the report of the Committee on Resolutions? *Mrs. F. Blanche Preble* of Chicago, Illinois, Chairman.

Mrs. F. Blanche Preble (Chairman): In presenting this report permit me to say that between three oclock on Saturday and noon on Monday your Committee on Resolutions spent a total of sixteen hours in the most thoughtful and earnest discussion. Every resolution has been most carefully considered and it is the earnest hope of your committee that we have succeeded in expressing the ideals and principles of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association. You have the report in your hands. Is it your desire that I shall read it?

Dr. DuShane (Indiana): *Madam Chairman,* I move the resolutions be read.

The President: A motion has been made by *Mr. DuShane* of Indiana that the resolutions be read.

Mr. Saunders (Virginia): *Madam Chairman,* I second the motion that the Chairman read the resolutions. We sit here and adopt resolutions that are never read. We did it at Atlanta and had some very foolish resolutions. We even asked the Government to appoint teachers to take the last census, and did other such silly things as that. These resolutions ought to be read and ought to be understood.

The President: The motion has been made and seconded that the resolutions be read.

Mr. Carroll (Rhode Island): I want to move an amendment, that the resolutions be considered one by one as read.

Miss Grosvenor (Washington, D. C.): Second the motion.

The amendment to the motion was thereupon voted upon and the amendment lost.

Mr. Judd (Alabama): I move that the resolutions be read all together and then allow the discussion to come on such resolutions as may challenge discussion. I am sure the great majority of these resolutions will call for no debate. That will save time, it seems to me.

Voice: Second the motion.

The President: The question being called for, the original motion was put, and the result seeming uncertain, *Mr. Saunders* of Virginia called for a division. A division was had and the motion carried.

Mr. Wannamaker (South Carolina): *Madam Chairman.*

The President: I recognize *Mr. George Wannamaker* of South Carolina.

Mr. Wannamaker: The resolution that always attracts great attention and demands the best interest of the National Education Association in convention assembled is the third to the last resolution and I, therefore, move you, *Madam Chairman,* after having heard the motion not to require all of the resolutions to be read, that we now request our chairman to read the resolutions headed "Education and the Federal Government." I move you that that section be read.

Mr. Saunders (Virginia): *Madam President,* the motion was passed to read all of the resolutions.

The President: The Chairman understood that the motion was passed that the resolutions be read. Am I right?

The President: The Chairman will proceed with the reading of the resolutions.

Mrs. Preble: In conformity with its platform of ideals and purposes the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association, assembled in its Sixty-eighth Annual Convention at Columbus, Ohio, adopts the following resolutions: (She then read the resolutions.)

She closed by reading the following:

TO COLUMBUS—The National Education Association acknowledges the many courtesies and charming hospitality so generously extended by the citizens of Ohio in their beautiful capital. It wishes to thank the good people of the Buckeye State for their cordial invitation for America to discover Columbus.

The Association appreciates the cooperation of city and state officials, civic organizations, educational workers, teachers, and children. It wishes to thank the press and radio services of the city for their helpful cooperation and support and to extend its appreciation to all others who have contributed to the success of the Sixty-eighth Annual Convention of the National Education Association.

Madam Chairman, I move the adoption of the report.

Voice: Second the motion.

The President: You have heard the motion by the Chairman to adopt this report which you have heard read, and the second.

Mr. Wannamaker: Madam President.

The President: Mr. Wannamaker of South Carolina.

Mr. George Wannamaker (South Carolina): I ask your indulgence for just a very brief period of time. It has been my pleasure and my privilege of attending the meetings of the National Education Association for many years. I want to give you just a brief sketch in order that you may properly appreciate what I am about to say.

I am tremendously interested in the welfare of the National Education Association as testified by the fact I am a life member of the organization and have the honor of representing my state on the Board of Directors. I feel that the interest of the great National Education Association is best served when the presidents of this organization follow the plan that the presidents for the last few years have followed, of giving to one who seems to voice the sentiments of a very, very small minority the same rights that would be given to anyone if he represented the ninety and nine others. And may I say to you as school teachers of America, if we in our classrooms expect to develop the citizenship outlined last evening by the daughter of the great commoner, we must so conduct ourselves in our great National Education Association that we would give to the delegates here the same rights and privileges we expect to have in the classrooms that we represent. I realize when I take the floor there is always in the convention some who will say, "There is *Wannamaker* again voicing the sentiments of a very small minority."

I spoke against this particular resolution at the meeting in Philadelphia in 1926, and while I have had the pleasure of attending other national conventions representing other interests, I have never anywhere, in the American Legion national convention, in any other national convention, been accorded the same courtesy or any courtesy as great when representing a minority report as was accorded to me by *Miss Mary McSkimmon,* the president who so graciously presided in Philadelphia, and I have found that the presidents succeeding her, knowing that I have opposition to offer, have accorded me the same privilege.

You want to find out what is best. We have been affirming year after year that we must have a Department of Education, with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. Various arguments have been presented for that. I am at variance with a great many of these, but I am not going to ask your indulgence to hear my personal views. I simply ask you to think carefully with me when I make this one statement—there is no organization in America that has been so honored by the President, in my humble judgment, as has been the National Education Association. When the Secretary of the Interior, *Dr. Wilbur,* wanted to make a study of the mooted question, he looked over the field of education and from our own great National Association picked a great many leaders and formed what is commonly known as the Wilbur Committee. Let us say we await with interest and confidence the report of this great committee appointed by the Secretary of the Interior to make a study of the problem, instead of saying over again, that even though he has picked our leaders to form this committee, we say again we must have a Secretary of Education in the President's Cabinet?

Therefore, *Madam Chairman,* without further indulgence I simply say, let us amend the resolution by saying: "The Association, therefore, awaits with interest and confidence the report of the Wilbur Committee." Thank you.

Mr. Ward (New Jersey): Madam Chairman I wish to second the motion to amend.

The question being called for the motion was put affirmatively, and a large number of "ayes" responded. At this point *Mr. Abercrombie* of Alabama arose to inquire what the motion was.

The President: Mr. Wannamaker's amendment to the resolution is before us.

Mr. Abercrombie: I move that the motion to amend be tabled.

Voice: Second the motion.

Mr. Abercrombie: Every year since the bill was first introduced to establish a Department of Education this Association has gone on record favoring it. Now his motion is one that would take a backward step. I move the motion to amend the resolution be tabled.

Voice: Second the motion.

Mr. Pearse (Wisconsin): *Madam Chairman,* I rise to a point of order. May I inquire if the passage of the motion to lay on the table will carry the whole report with it?

The President: It will carry the motion affected, the Chair believes. I am going to ask *Mr. Pearson,* our Parliamentarian, to come to the platform.

Mr. Abercrombie: Madam Chairman, if my motion would result in taking the whole resolution with it, I would not want it.

The President: As I see it, there is an amendment before you. *Mr. Wannamaker* has offered an amendment and it has been seconded. Am I right? Are you ready to vote upon this amendment?

Mr. Wannamaker: I simply offered a very brief amendment to the resolution. With your indulgence I will read it. It is just one sentence: "The Association, therefore, awaits with interest and confidence the report of the Wilbur Commission." As I understand it, *Dr. Abercrombie* offered a motion to table my amendment.

Mr. Moore (Illinois): I would like to call the attention of this body to the fact I think *Mr. Wannamaker's* statement may lead to some confusion. He says he offers only the brief addition to the resolution. This is a substitution for that part of the resolution beginning with the words "The establishment of a Department . . ."; therefore that part will be eliminated if *Mr. Wannamaker's* motion is passed.

The President: I am sure the Assembly wishes to be clear on all this, so these explanations are in order.

Mr. Wannamaker: I am very certain there has been no more appropriate remark made this morning than the remark of *Mr. Moore* of Illinois. There is no desire on the part of *Mr. Wannamaker* from South Carolina or any other member of the National Education Association to confuse, embarrass, or change anything at all. I very sincerely thank *Mr. Moore* for acquainting you with the fact. I am striking out the words "urge the establishment of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet and the efficient integration of the educational activities of the Federal Government in this Department," and I am asking you in view of the fact that the Secretary of the Interior, *Dr. Wilbur,* has gone to our own Association and picked its leaders, simply not to continue to say what you did and tell them how much you want it. We have been saying for seven or nine odd years that we must have a Federal Department of Education. I am asking you as a group simply this time to say: "We await with interest and confidence the report of the Wilbur Commission."

The President: I recognize *Mr. Saunders* of Virginia. I had already recognized him.

Mr. Saunders (Virginia): I simply want to say, in response to the motion of *Mr. Wannamaker* of South Carolina, and his arguments therefor, that this Association has a Commission on Legislation, composed of representatives in every state and territory of the nation, and on that Commission are members of the Wilbur Committee. The Commission met here on Sunday afternoon at the Deshler-Wallick Hotel and after deliberation, very careful deliberation, that Commission representing every state in the Union, with members of the Wilbur Committee on it, by unanimous vote approved exactly the language of this resolution which you now have before you. I am, therefore, of the opinion that we should not change one syllable, one sentence, one punctuation mark in the resolution as it comes with the unanimous endorsement of the Commission which was appointed by the President of the Association, and which has been working upon this problem for years. I hope that you will not vote to table the amendment offered by *Mr. Wannamaker* but that you will defeat his motion as offered.

Mr. Abercrombie (Alabama): I ask unanimous consent to be allowed to withdraw my motion to table, in order that we may vote on the motion direct.

The President: Mr. Abercrombie, who made the motion to table, asks unanimous consent to withdraw it in order that *Mr. Wannamaker's* amendment may be voted upon. If there is no opposition, I will take it we have unanimous consent. Are we ready for the question?

The question being called for the motion to amend as offered by *Mr. Wannamaker* was voted upon and the amendment lost.

The President: I recognize *Mr. Dienst* of Idaho.

Mr. Dienst: I want to refer to the resolution on the Eighteenth Amendment. I know that as teachers we are all in sympathy with the enforcement of the law, but we also have a larger responsibility than to be merely in favor of the enforcement of the law. I think that we as teachers have taken to ourselves the credit for this law, and if it is to be effective we must keep up and carry on with that campaign of education that shall make it effective in the lives and habits of the boys and girls in the schools. I, therefore, offer as an addition to the resolution on the Eighteenth Amendment, the words "and pledge its support to an active educational campaign in the schools in behalf of habits of living for which the Eighteenth Amendment stands."

California: Second the motion.

The question being called for, and there being no discussion the motion was put and carried.

The President: I recognize *Mr. Pearse* of Wisconsin.

Mr. Pearse: I have read over with quite a little care this item on page 2 about the middle of the page, "Qualifications for American Citizenship." I think we need to be a little careful about this just at this time. I remember that within a short time those persons applying for citizenship were denied citizenship because they said they would not, in the event their citizenship was granted, agree to defend the republic unless they happened to feel like it. They were denied citizenship. One of our courts has just reversed the lower court and decided they were entitled to citizenship. It seems to me that we need to be careful here. This says, and I agree with all the earlier part of it, "—that the certificate shall be issued to any applicant who satisfactorily completes the examination, or in lieu thereof produces evidence of having completed a school course covering a period of eight years in the United States." It leaves out entirely his attitude toward the government and toward his duty in defense thereof. Now I don't suppose for a moment the framer of this resolution intended to have that omitted, but it seems to commit this Association to the principle that a man or woman who can comply with the literary tests set forth should have a naturalization certificate, regardless of his attitude toward the government and toward the defense of it. I wish, therefore, to move as follows, that at the end of this section or paragraph of the resolutions, there be added: "—and a willingness to support and defend the Constitution of the United States and defend the nation at need." *Madam Chairman,* I move the adoption of that addition.

New Mexico: Second the motion.

Nevada: Nevada also wishes to second the motion.

The question being called for, the motion to adopt the amendment offered by *Mr. Pearse* was voted upon and carried.

Mr. Howard (Oregon): I call for a division on that vote.

A division being called for on the announcement of the President that the amendment was carried, the motion was again put and voted upon by a rising vote and the Secretary announced the amendment as carried.

The President: What is your further pleasure? The original motion is before you, made by the Chairman, to adopt the report now as amended.

Mr. F. M. Underwood (Missouri): I would like to make a motion with respect to the paragraph on Habit Forming Drugs, page 2. My sentence reads as follows: "It commends for use in the schools selected periodicals which do not carry tobacco advertising." I move the elimination of that section. The use of periodicals in the schools depends upon the articles that are in it. If a good article is there, it is useful. The question whether or not it carries a tobacco advertisement is a minor matter. It is beneath the dignity of this organization to make such a statement to the teachers of America. I move the elimination of the last sentence.

Seconded by *Mr. Ward* of New Jersey.

Mr. Shephard (Minnesota): The question being called for, a *viva voce* vote was taken, and the President being in doubt of the result, again put the motion calling for a rising vote, and the Secretary declared the motion to amend lost.

Mr. Ward: I do not want to infer that New Jersey questions the judgment of the secretary in that count. But it seems to me it is so close, and that the implications of this sentence in this paragraph, if adopted, are going to bring to us so many criticisms, and as one of the greatest educators of the country just said to me today, "The inclusion of this sentence in these resolutions is ridiculous." I feel that we could consider this so, seriously. I am afraid it wasn't so considered. Therefore, I am going to ask for a roll call of the states on the question.

The President: I recognize *Dr. Davidson* of New York.

Dr. Davidson: I hope the N. E. A. will not go into the tobacco business, directly or indirectly.

The President: I recognize *Dr. Thompson.*

Mr. Thompson: Madam President, this motion has been voted on and the Chair has rendered a decision. It is out of order further to discuss it. Nothing here is in order except a reconsideration.

The President: The Chair is glad to be advised. *Dr. Thompson* reminds us this has already been voted upon and decided and nothing is in order excepting reconsideration. Shall we pass to the next order of business? What is your pleasure? The original motion then is before you made by the Chairman, with the amendments.

The President: I recognize *Mr. Saunders* of Virginia.

Mr. Saunders: I wish to know if the motion is to adopt the report or the motion is to pass the resolutions?

The President: The motion, *Mr. Saunders,* as I see it is to adopt the report as it has been presented and amended.

Mr. Saunders (Virginia): Does that mean we have approved the resolutions? If not, I want to make the motion so that it includes the resolutions.

The President: The Chair thinks it does include the resolutions.

Mr. Saunders: If it does, I am satisfied.

The President: If I am wrong, I shall be glad to be corrected.

Mr. Ward (New Jersey): Madam Chairman, that is the ruling exactly as you made it the other day which the chairman of the committee the next morning withdrew. This ought to be a motion to adopt the report, and then afterwards a motion to adopt the resolutions. They ought not to be combined.

The President: The Chair, with your permission, will recognize the Chairman of the Resolutions Committee, *Mrs. Preble.*

Mrs. Preble: The Parliamentarian was not on the platform until within the last few minutes. I would like to tell him what I have done and ask him what I shall do now. Mr. Parliamentarian, after I finished reading the complete report, I moved the adoption of the report as read. The motion was seconded. Since then the report has been amended. What I wish to ask you now is, what is the proper procedure for me in order to get before the house the motion to adopt this report as amended? (The Parliamentarian consulted the President.)

The President: The report is before you on the motion of the Chairman to adopt the resolutions as amended.

(The question being called for, the motion was put, carried, and the resolutions as amended declared adopted as the report of the committee and the resolutions of the Association. The resolutions are printed elsewhere. See index.)

The President: Now I am most pleased again to present to this Assembly our local host, *Dr. Collicott,* who will make some announcements.

Dr. Collicott: Many of you have heard and have used the address in the dedication and rededication of the schools of one of the Columbus elementary schools. I have great pleasure, and also on behalf of the teachers of Ohio I have the highest possible honor, in presenting to you the man who is the author of that Gettysburg educational address, *Dr. W. H. Scott,* who was president of Ohio State University from 1883 to 1895. *Dr. Scott.*

Dr. Scott: I never was an extemporaneous speaker. I am afraid I haven't anything to say except thank you for your kind greeting.

Dr. Collicott: Dr. Thompson, who has been helping us with this convention as you know, must leave before our program of tomorrow noon. I am asking *Dr. Thompson* to say a word of explanation to you concerning his acquaintance and his work and association with *Dr. Scott. Dr. Thompson.*

Dr. Thompson: I could not have a greater privilege than to bear testimony to this beloved citizen, now retired, like myself, from the educational service. *Dr. William Henry Scott* has given his life to education—more than forty years of it. He was President of Ohio University at Athens and was also a professor. He came to the Ohio State University, as was said, in 1883, and was president until 1895. At that time he retired to the Chair he had always occupied, the Chair of Psychology and Philosophy, and served as a professor in the Ohio State University, head of the Department of Psychology, until 1910. At that time he retired. He is just a little older than I am, but not enough older to be an old man. No man is an old man until he is twenty years older than I am. So *Dr. Scott* is not an old man. But he is the Apostle John in Education in the state of Ohio, and I think you ought to know that fact.

(*Dr. Collicott* thereupon made announcements respecting courtesy features for delegates.)

Dr. Collicott: Now, if I may have your attention, I will undertake, within one minute, to give you this matchless dedicatory address, called the Gettysburg Dedicatory Address. (He then recited the noted address.)

The President: I am sure I am voicing your feelings when I say that this Association and this Delegate Assembly is honored by the presence of these distinguished Ohio educators on the platform and about us this morning.

I am calling at this moment, a little bit out of order, for the report of the Budget Committee from the Chairman, *Mr. Rogers,* of Texas.

Mr. Rogers: I take it for granted you have the printed report in your hands, so I am not going to detain you by making any statement in regard to the budget except this, that this report which you have represents months of study on the part of the committee; that the committee has had open house, given to everybody an opportunity to come before the committee and present his or her view in regard to appropriations. It has been an open proposition. The report as it is submitted to you was laid before the board of directors, and after its submission and consideration was adopted to be reported here to you for your consideration and approval. I, therefore, move the adoption of the report.

(For report in full see printed report elsewhere in the volume. See index.)

The question being called for, the motion having been duly seconded, a vote was taken and the motion to adopt unanimously carried and the report declared adopted as printed.

The President: We will now have the Annual Report of the Secretary—the big man, it seems to me, of this Association, *J. W. Crabtree.*

Mr. Crabtree: It seems to me that the biggest thing for me to do is to be brief in presenting the report. It has been placed in your hands and, of course, you have all read it. I therefore move that it be received and placed on file.

The motion being duly seconded, was put to a vote, and carried.

Mr. Crabtree: I have the report of the Auditing Committee. The Chairman of the Committee, President A. J. Matthews of Arizona, sent me the report to read for him, which is as follows:

Your Committee has examined a copy of the report of the Auditors, Peat, Marwick, Mitchell & Company of New York City, and finds that the report is true and accurate in every particular insofar as your committee can ascertain.

We, therefore, advise the acceptance of the report of the auditors as printed and submitted in the pamphlet which has been placed in your hands.

Respectfully submitted,

A. J. MATTHEWS, Ariz.
E. E. CHURCH, W. Va.
A. M. ROYCE, Wis.
Auditing Committee.

I move the adoption of this report of the Auditing Committee.

The motion being duly seconded, was voted upon, carried, and the report of the Auditing Committee declared adopted as read.

Secretary Crabtree (continuing): The American Educational Research Association has made application to be admitted as a Department of the National Education Association. The required number of signatures are on file. The proper notice was given at the Atlanta meeting. All conditions have been complied with. This department would make a more vital connection with colleges and universities than we now have. Believing that the members of the Association are in favor of it, and in order to expedite business, I move that the department be created.

The motion being duly seconded by a delegate from Mississippi, the motion carried, and the department declared created.

Secretary Crabtree (continuing): Application was made a year ago for a Department of Special Education. The petitions contain more than 250 names. The required number of meetings have been held. Proper notice was given at the Atlanta Convention. All conditions have been complied with. The Executive Committee and the Board of Trustees have recommended that the department be created. I, therefore, move that this department be created.

The motion having been duly seconded, was voted upon, carried, and the department declared created.

Secretary Crabtree (continuing): I am presenting here a petition for reestablishing a Department of Secondary Education. There are on the petition more than 1500 signatures. These are on file at the present time, representing forty states. This request according to the bylaws will lay over to be voted on in 1931. The request reads as follows:

"We herewith present the signatures of approximately fifteen hundred secondary school teachers and other members of the National Education Association from forty different states. We petition you to authorize the reestablishment of the Department of Secondary Education.

"We have effected an organization with the requisite officers and committees for providing effective work throughout the year and a program for the next convention. As this department formerly existed, the necessary number of meetings have been held.

"In addition to this, from 691 secondary school teachers who do not now attend the annual conventions and most of whom are not members of the N. E. A., we have written statements that they will be likely to attend the annual conventions if the Department of Secondary Education is reestablished.

Respectfully submitted,

CHARLES M. STEBBINS.
CARL E. BASH.

So I take it I am simply to give this notice and include it in the minutes, and it will be taken up for action next year.

The President: The Secretary has a further notice to read.

Secretary Crabtree: The new Board of Directors will meet tomorrow morning at 7:30 at breakfast at the Neil House, the French Room. See that your Director knows of this meeting.

The President: We are now ready for the report of the Treasurer, *Dr. Smith.*

Dr. Smith: The Treasurer's report is printed in this little pamphlet entitled "Finances and Building," a pamphlet in the folder given to the delegates. It is a report made by the official auditors of the account of the treasurer.

I, therefore, move the adoption of this report.

The motion being duly seconded, was voted upon, carried, and the report declared adopted as printed.

The President: We are ready now for the Report of the Board of Trustees. *Dr. Siders.*

Mr. Saunders (Virginia): *Dr. Siders* is in an important conference and can't be here, but the report has been printed, has been distributed, and as a member of that committee I move the adoption of the report.

The motion being duly seconded, was voted upon, and carried.

The President: We will be honored to have the benediction at this important meeting now given us by *Dr. Scott.*

(The benediction was pronounced by *Dr. Scott.*)

Fourth Business Session, Thursday, July 4, 1930

This session was opened at ten a. m., at the Ohio State University Stadium, Columbus, Ohio, by a musical program rendered by the Columbus High School bands and orchestras, and a very wonderful flag drill participated in by 10,000 Columbus school children, including the raising of the flag conducted by a detail from the regular United States Army.

President Pyrtle: The *Rev. Dr. H. M. McLightner,* Pastor of the First Congregational Church of Columbus, Ohio, will invoke the divine blessing.

(The Invocation by *Dr. McLightner.*)

The President: May I voice your appreciation of this moment and our appreciation in this administration for the wonderfully fine entertainment and inspiration that has come to us through the local arrangements because of these fine young people, the hope of the world, giving us the music, giving us the flag drill this morning, giving us all these other many, many forms of entertainment and profit which the teachers have enjoyed so very much.

At this moment I would like to call for the report of the Elections Committee, *Mr. Longshore,* Chairman.

Mr. W. T. Longshore (Missouri): *Madam President,* Members of the National Education Association, and the Public in General at Columbus, Ohio, July 4, 1930: Your Elections Committee has canvassed the votes cast by it and turned them over to the Chairman. We hereby certify the following is a correct statement of the votes cast by the Delegate Assembly.

Candidates for President

Joseph Rosier	West Virginia	448
Willis A. Sutton	Georgia	604

Candidates for Vicepresident

John W. Abercrombie	Alabama	896
George C. Baker	New Jersey	825
Ernest W. Butterfield	Connecticut	789
Jessie Gray	Pennsylvania	921
Florence M. Hale	Maine	929
Amy Hinrichs	Louisiana	753
W. H. Holmes	New York	720
Virginia West Jones	California	861
Elizabeth McCormick	Wisconsin	800
E. W. Montgomery	Arizona	688
J. Orin Powers	District of Columbia	673
Francisco Vizcarrondo	Porto Rico	881
Edgar H. Whitney	Oregon	835

The eleven highest of this number are the elected ones. Thirteen were voted upon.

For Treasurer it was a very close race. *Dr. Smith* was running against himself—*Henry Lester Smith,* 982 votes.

The total number of delegates voting, 1059, showing well for our membership.

We further certify that the 54 candidates for membership to the Board of Directors as printed on the official ballot were duly elected.

Respectfully submitted by the committee,

Annie C. Woodward   Miss L. Ragsdale   Emma Porter Ryland
David A. Ward   W. T. Longshore, *Chairman*

It is respectfully submitted, *Madam Chairman.*

The President: What is your pleasure? I recognize *Mr. Rosier* of West Virginia.

Mr. Joseph Rosier (West Virginia): On behalf of the minority that participated in the little contest within this Association yesterday, I wish to make it clear to all educational forces of this country that when it comes to the great aims and purposes of our organization that we stand together as a unit for the promotion of educational progress in this country. We are confronted by many grave educational situations and among the agencies set up to deal with those situations there are none more efficient nor more effective than the great National Education Association. Therefore, on behalf of my friends and on behalf of myself I wish to pledge our loyalty and our support to the incoming President, *Dr. Willis A. Sutton,* in the promotion of all projects that may be put on by this Association in the coming year and on my behalf and that of my friends I extend to him our congratulations, and I move, therefore, that the election of *Dr. Willis A. Sutton* of Georgia be made unanimous.

The President: You have heard this magnanimous motion. Is there a second? I hear it seconded.

The motion, having been duly seconded, was put and unanimously carried.

The President: I have the distinct honor of presenting to this Convention your new President, *Dr. Willis A. Sutton.*

Willis A. Sutton (President-elect): It is exceedingly difficult for me to say even in a word or two my deep appreciation of the honor which you have conferred upon me; and then for my good friend, Joseph Rosier, to come with such a magnanimous spirit, makes me feel as though American teachers and American educators are able to use all their emotional powers and yet at the same time think clearly and well.

I am delighted this morning to express to you my very thorough, deep appreciation of this very great honor. To be president of the greatest association of teachers in the world is indeed an honor that any man might covet. All that I can say this morning is simply to express to those who have thus honored me, my very, very deep appreciation and ask that you will give me this year your most earnest and enthusiastic support; and if I may add just this one word to the great state of Ohio and to the great city of Columbus and all of the cities within the borders of this state, that never in my history has the Association been so royally entertained, so wonderfully supported as this Association has been at Columbus, Ohio. Out of the depths of our hearts I wish to express as your new President our gratitude, and may God's blessing rest upon us as we work together this year.

The President: All during this convention I have tried my best several times to get your local host to the platform and haven't always succeeded. Since my authority is slipping from me rapidly, before it is all gone I want to ask *Superintendent Collicott,* our jovial, efficient, local host to stand.

Mr. Collicott: On behalf of the great state of Ohio and its Capital City, we deeply appreciate the expressions of approval of our modest efforts to entertain this great convention. We thank you and we hope you will want some time to return to Ohio and we pledge you a real courtesy program the next time.

Secretary Crabtree: The following request was presented at the last meeting of the Board of Directors and by them referred to the Representative Assembly to be made a part of the record and to serve as a notice that a Department of School Organization would be voted upon at the next annual convention. There are more than 250 names attached to this petition. The required number of meetings have been held.

President Pyrtle: So many expressions have been made of the very fine music that I want to ask *Director Roberts* to stand and bow to the audience.

Many expressions of appreciation of the fine program of addresses have been made. We are to close this morning with this fine patriotic celebration. I rejoice with you in it. I think we are indeed fortunate that we have this auspicious weather, that we have these wonderful speakers, these children, this music, all Ohio making us celebrate in this real way, and it is a great privilege and a distinct honor to this Association this morning to have His Excellency, the Governor of Ohio, to present our distinguished speaker, one of the most distinguished educators of the world. I have the happy privilege of presenting His Excellency *Governor Cooper* of Ohio, who will present the speaker.

Governor Myers Y. Cooper: I am sure there is not one in this presence today who has not been very much thrilled with the patriotic exhibition which we have witnessed in this flag drill. It was simply fine and I want to take this opportunity of congratulating you, *Dr. Collicott*, and your able corps of teachers of Columbus in the presentation of this flag drill.

I had the privilege and pleasure of listening to the new president of the National Education Association the other day at Rotary. I heard him tell of all the boys who had come under his influence while superintendent of schools of that great southern city of Atlanta, and I came to the conclusion when he got through that about every man that had amounted to anything in the world had been in his school sometime or another. He counted among others, *Bobby Jones,* who received an education under his direction, and I am not sure but what *Ty Cobb,* the Georgia Peach, also got his education there. In any event, I am constrained to believe, after hearing his speech, that the National Education Association has a Georgia Peach as its President.

I want to say this further word, observing as I have the fine leadership of *Miss Pyrtle,* he has got to be a "Peach" if he approaches her excellence as an administrator.

Some 438 years ago Columbus discovered America, but in 1930 the teachers of the United States and her territories discovered Columbus. We are glad that you have discovered it, but we are especially happy that we might discover you and learn of your fine idealism and high purpose in the sacred responsibility which is in your care.

This is the last day of your convention. We hope that you have had a good time in Ohio. We hope you take away with you something of the inspiration that you have left with us. Somehow on the Fourth of July, which we are celebrating in connection with this final session, our patriotism is quickened and deepened and we feel to our very depths the glory and honor of being an American citizen.

Daniel Webster said, "Thank God I also am an American. One country, one Constitution, one destiny."

The best adaptation that I can think of as to the value of our country is the devotion and love of country which we see manifested by the people on this memorable day. It has been truly said that no government is safe unless it is protected by the goodwill of the people, and it is a good omen that there is a manifestation on the part of millions of loyal hearts today of that goodwill, giving assurance of the perpetuation of idealism on which our country is founded.

Pride of ancestry is one of the oldest emotions. It animates the state life and aspirations of all peoples. This pride of ancestry and race traces its origin into the very fountain-head of the race itself. The Spartan mother sent her son into battle with the command to fight and if need be to die like a Spartan, and so did the mothers of Persia and of Britain. During the ascendancy of the Roman Empire the proudest boast of a citizen of that empire was, "I am a Roman citizen." And I may say to you on this occasion that our proudest boast is that we are Ohioans, that we are citizens of the greatest, freest, noblest country on the face of the earth, the United States of America.

While pride of ancestry is with us all, it is founded upon the accident of birth. No one has yet devised a means of selecting his own ancestors. Pride of ancestry is a noble sentiment, but nobler still is love of country. Here we find combined the intelligence of pure reason and the fervid passion that springs from the heart; here we find attainment of the object of our dreams. It is a rare, a superb, a beautiful sentiment. To each one of us here present, whether born on these or far distant shores, there has come that supreme moment of sweet joy and gladness when first we saw that Star Spangled Banner, our Flag, and comprehended it within our hearts as well as our eyes, for in that moment came the realization that its silken folds embraced our hopes, our aspirations, our wellbeing, our lives, in this, our beloved country.

We are greatly honored today in having with us to deliver the patriotic address a man who has come to voice for the people of America the ideals of the nation and to emphasize that in their keeping is the future safety and security of the ideals for which the fathers so clearly lived and so gloriously died. *Dr. Finley* is recognized throughout the civilized world not only as a great scholar and publicist but as one representative of all that is best in American ideals, one whose voice and pen have ever been used in the cause of human welfare. He stands not only for America but for America's service to the rest of the world. He is a messenger of goodwill for all people. A native of Illinois, he knows the great heart of America. A graduate, and later president of Knox College, located in a sister state, professor of political science at Princeton, state commissioner of education of New York, president of the State University of New York, president of New York City College, associate editor of The New York *Times* for the last nine years—despite all these experiences he is decidedly human, and after long association with Grover Cleveland and Woodrow Wilson he still remains a Republican. What more of him can we ask than that? But on this day the people of America have but one political creed—love of country, loyalty, and devotion to the flag which floats over a united people.

It is with great pleasure I have the honor of presenting to you at this time the Honorable *John H. Finley,* associate editor of the New York *Times.*

(*Dr. Finley's* address is printed elsewhere in the volume. See index.)

After the address the president declared the annual convention adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary.*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President.*

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Atlantic City, Wednesday, February 26, 1930

A meeting of the Board of Directors was held in Committee Room Number Two of the Auditorium, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 26, 1930, and was called to order at 11:15 by the President, *E. Ruth Pyrtle.* She stated as follows:

"This special meeting of the Board of Directors has been duly called for the purpose of attending to matters connected with the construction of the new headquarters building and for considering such other matters as may properly come before the Board."

She called upon the Chairman of the Board of Trustees to explain the progress which has been made on the arrangements for the new building and to indicate the action which should be taken by the Board of Directors in order to enable the Association to secure the loan or loans that have been tentatively arranged. On the suggestion of Director *George W. Wannamaker* of South Carolina the Chairman ordered the *Secretary* to call the roll of state directors. It was found that a quorum had not yet arrived, hence the Chairman called upon *Mr. Reynolds* of Ohio who informed the meeting of the local arrangements for the convention to be held in Columbus next summer.

The *Secretary* then announced that a quorum was present. The following answered to roll call:

W. E. Givens, California
J. S. Rickards, Florida
C. F. Dienst, Idaho
A. L. Whittenberg, Illinois
Charles F. Miller, Indiana
W. B. Jack, Maine
William Burdick, Maryland
Annie C. Woodward, Massachusetts

W. H. Pearce, Michigan
Alice Sullivan, Minnesota
H. V. Cooper, Mississippi
T. J. Walker, Missouri
M. C. Lefler, Nebraska
A. J. Glennie, New Jersey
H. W. Langworthy, New York
T. W. Andrews, North Carolina
Minnie J. Nielson, North Dakota
A. C. Eldredge, Ohio
J. H. Kelley, Pennsylvania
Agnes M. Bacon, Rhode Island
G. W. Wannamaker, South Carolina
C. H. Dempsey, Vermont
Joseph Rosier, West Virginia
E. G. Doudna, Wisconsin
J. J. Early, Wyoming

Among the life members who were present but not counted in the number making the quorum were the following:

F. G. Blair, Illinois
Olive M. Jones, New York
C. G. Pearse, Wisconsin
Mary McSkimmon, Massachusetts
R. C. Moore, Illinois
Uel W. Lamkin, Missouri
Cornelia S. Adair, Virginia

The following ex-officio directors were present:

W. R. Siders, Chairman, Board of Trustees, New Jersey
H. L. Smith, Treasurer, Indiana
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary, District of Columbia
E. Ruth Pyrtle, President, Nebraska

The Chairman stated that a quorum was present. She then called upon *Chairman Siders,* of the Board of Trustees, to make all necessary explanations. After carefully outlining plans and explaining the steps to be taken, he read resolutions incorporated below and stated that the Board of Trustees recommended their adoption by the Board of Directors. Director *George W. Wannamaker* then made the following motion: "I move that the Board of Directors adopt the following resolution authorizing a loan of $125,000 and the officers of the Association are authorized to carry out its provisions."

> *Resolved,* that *E. Ruth Pyrtle,* President, and *J. W. Crabtree,* Secretary, be authorized to negotiate a loan of $125,000 or as much thereof as may be necessary from the Commercial National Bank of Washington upon terms and conditions to be mutually agreed upon and the said *E. Ruth Pyrtle* and *J. W. Crabtree* are further authorized and directed to do all acts and things and execute any and all papers in their judgment necessary or desirable to consummate the loan and to pledge as collateral security for the repayment of the said loan any of the investments now owned by the Association and held in its fund known as the "Permanent Fund of the National Education Association"; and
>
> *It was further resolved* and ordered by the said Board of Directors that the income from the "Permanent Fund of the National Education Association," together with all dues paid by the members of the Association, after provision has been made for the annual budgets of the Association, be pledged also for the repayment of the aforesaid loan and the interest thereon until said loan, with interest has been liquidated.

The motion was seconded by *M. C. Lefler* of Nebraska. After discussion and further explanation a vote was taken. Thirty-two members voted "Yes." One member voted "No."

The question was raised as to whether life directors were entitled to vote. The Chairman explained that all directors could vote but that a quorum was determined by counting only the elected or state directors. She announced that the resolution was duly adopted and that its provisions would be carried out by the officers of the Association.

The second resolution pertaining to the loan of $200,000 was read by *Chairman Siders* of the Board of Trustees. *Charles F. Dienst* of Idaho, after making a few remarks, stated: "I move that the following resolution be adopted and the officers authorized to carry out its provisions:"

> *Resolved,* that for the purpose of the erection and completion of a building for the accommodation of offices of this Association and for rental purposes, a loan of two hundred thousand dollars ($200,000) be obtained, and in the negotiation of said loan, such notes for such amounts payable at such time or times and with such rate of interest and upon such terms and conditions as may be agreed upon, shall be issued by and in the name of this corporation, under signature of its President, attested by its Secretary and its corporate seal; and to secure the payment of the principal of and the interest on said notes, the said President is hereby authorized to execute and deliver in the name of this corporation, a deed of trust in the usual form upon the following described property owned by this corporation and situated in the City of Washington, D. C., namely, Lots "A" and "B" in Susan M. Watson's subdivision of lots in square one hundred and ninety-six (196), as per plat recorded in Liber R. W. folio 65 of the Records of the Office of the Surveyor of the District of Columbia. Also lot twenty-five (25) in the subdivision made by the National Safe Deposit Savings and Trust Company, of lots in square one hundred and ninety-six (196), as per plat recorded in Liber No. 31 folio 108 of the aforesaid Surveyor's Office Records. Also parts of original lots five (5) and six (6) in square one hundred and ninety-six (196), described as follows: Beginning for the same on M Street at a point distant 42 feet west from the southeast corner of lot 5, and running thence west along said street, 30 feet; thence north 106 feet 10 inches to the rear line of said lots; thence east along said rear line, 30 feet; thence south 106 feet 10 inches to the place of beginning.
>
> And the said President and Secretary of this corporation are also hereby authorized and directed to do and perform all acts necessary to effect the purpose of this resolution.

William B. Jack of Maine seconded the motion. The vote was then taken. Thirty-two voted "Yes." Two voted "No." Carried.

Director Langworthy of New York explained that he had voted "No" because he had not been fully informed concerning the matter. *Francis G. Blair* explained that he had not been personally in favor of constructing a headquarters building until funds covering the cost were actually in the hands of the Association. The Chairman then announced that the resolution had been duly passed and that the officers of the Association would carry out the wishes of the Board of Directors.

On motion the meeting adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary.*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President.*

Columbus, Ohio, June 28-July 4, 1930

The meeting was called to order promptly at 2 p. m. Saturday, June 28, 1930, in the Stage Assembly Room of the Columbus Auditorium, Columbus, Ohio, by President *E. Ruth Pyrtle,* who asked the *Secretary* to call the roll by states.

The following were present: Arizona—*E. W. Montgomery,* Colorado—*W. B. Mooney,* Connecticut—*Gordon C. Swift,* District of Columbia—*Edith Louise Grosvenor,* Delaware—*Harry V. Holloway,* Georgia—*M. L. Duggan,* Idaho—*C. F. Dienst,* Illinois—*A. L. Whittenberg,* Indiana—*Charles F. Miller,* Iowa—*Mary A. Lord,* Kansas—*M. E. Pearson,* Kentucky—*R. E. Williams,* Louisiana—*Annie T. Bell,* Maryland—*William Burdick,* Massachusetts—*Annie C. Woodward,* Michigan

—*Webster H. Pearce,* Minnesota—*Alice Sullivan,* Mississippi—*H. V. Cooper,* Missouri—*Thomas J. Walker,* Montana—*R. J. Cunningham,* Nebraska—*M. C. Lefler,* Nevada—*Jennie A. Curieux,* New Hampshire—*Dana S. Jordan,* New Jersey—*Alexander J. Glennie,* New Mexico—*Mrs. H. F. Brock,* North Carolina—*T. Wingate Andrews,* North Dakota—*Minnie J. Nielson,* Ohio—*A. C. Eldredge,* Oregon—*F. C. Fitzpatrick,* Pennsylvania—*J. Herbert Kelley,* Porto Rico—*Francisco Vizcarrondo,* South Carolina—*George W. Wannamaker,* South Dakota—*Mrs. Mabel K. Trooien,* Texas—*L. W. Rogers,* Vermont—*Clarence H. Dempsey,* Virginia—*Robert W. House,* Washington—*Arthur L. Marsh,* West Virginia—*Joseph Rosier,* Wisconsin—*Edgar G. Doudna,* Wyoming—*J. J. Early,* Colorado—*Mary C. C. Bradford,* Illinois—*R. C. Moore,* Missouri—*Uel W. Lamkin,* New York—*George D. Strayer,* Virginia—*Cornelia S. Adair,* Washington—*Mrs. Josephine Corliss Preston,* and Wisconsin—*Carroll G. Pearse.*

Forty-seven were present.

The President: We will proceed with the business of the Association, there being more than a quorum present.

Mr. C. F. Dienst of Idaho read a letter of resignation from *Director Steele* of South Dakota and moved that his resignation be accepted and that *Mrs. Mabel K. Trooien* of Aberdeen, South Dakota, State Department of Education, be elected to fill the vacancy. *Director Pearson* of Kansas seconded the motion. Carried.

Mr. C. G. Pearse of Wisconsin moved that *Miss Edith Grosvenor* of Washington be elected to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of *Mr. English* who was absent on account of severe illness. The motion was duly seconded and carried.

Mr. A. L. Whittenberg of Illinois called attention to the fact that *A. R. Taylor* of Decatur, Illinois, a life member of the Association had passed away during the year.

Miss Cornelia S. Adair of Virginia moved that the Secretary write and express to *Director Harry English* of the District of Columbia hope for his rapid recovery. The motion was seconded by numerous persons, and carried by a unanimous vote. This was the first meeting he had failed to attend since the Representative Assembly was created.

Miss Grosvenor of the District of Columbia told of *Mr. English's* great interest in the Association and of his regrets because he could not attend this meeting.

Mr. Harry V. Holloway of Delaware moved the adoption of the minutes of the Atlanta meeting as printed in the volume. The motion was duly seconded.

The *Secretary* read the following items passed by the Executive Committee and submitted for the approval of the Board of Directors:

1. That a time limit be set at which time all resolutions affecting the policies of the Association shall be presented in writing to the Resolutions Committee;
2. Suggest to the Resolutions Committee that hereafter resolutions of the Association be confined to new policies or the reaffirmation of old policies which are of particular importance at that time; and,
3. We insist that the Resolutions Committee write the resolutions in the fewest possible number of words;
4. That the Association publish in pamphlet form for general distribution to its members statements of policies previously approved by the Association, or copies of resolutions.

A motion was made by *Mr. Pearse* to take the report item by item. Seconded by *Mr. Fitzpatrick.* Carried.

A motion was made by *Mr. Pearse,* and seconded by *Mr. Wannamaker* that the *Secretary* be authorized to set a date as a limit for presenting resolutions in harmony with the requirement in Point No. 1. Carried.

It was moved by *Mrs. Bradford,* and seconded by *Mr. Lamkin* that the recommendations contained in No. 2 be adopted.

Explanations were made by the *Secretary* and by *Mr. Lamkin.* Among those who participated in the discussion were: *Mrs. Bradford, Mr. Pearse,* and *Mr. Wannamaker.*

The question being called for on the motion to adopt Point No. 2, the motion was put and carried.

A motion was duly made and seconded to adopt Point No. 3. Carried.

After further discussion it was moved by *Mr. Pearse,* seconded by *Miss Grosvenor* that Point No. 4 be adopted. Carried.

Mr. Wannamaker moved that the Board of Directors go on record as requesting that the resolutions be presented to the General Assembly not later than the third general meeting of the Representative Assembly. Seconded by *Mrs. Bradford.* After discussion the motion was put and carried.

The *President* called on the chairman of the Budget Committee for a report whereupon *Mr. Rogers* stated that the completed report would be ready for the Tuesday meeting of the Board of Directors which had been set apart for hearing the Budget Committee report. He could only report progress at this time.

The chairman, *Miss Pyrtle,* called attention to work of the President's Advisory Committee on Education and requested *Mr. Lamkin,* a member of the Committee, to make a report to the Board of Directors. *Mr. Lamkin* explained the purpose of the Committee and the progress which has been made. He stated that a report would be made in October or November. He said that he never knew of a more openminded and thorough investigation than this one. He asked for suggestions on various points in the agenda.

(Thereupon followed further discussion of the work of the Advisory Commission, and *Mr. Lamkin, Mr. Crabtree,* and *Mr. Siders* responded to sundry questions. All were pleased with the work of the Committee as outlined by *Mr. Lamkin.*)

The next order of business being the reports of the Treasurer and Board of Trustees, *Mr. Pearse* suggested that *Mr. Siders* give a summary of the different reports without attempting to go into details. This suggestion being accepted, *Mr. Siders* called the attention of the directors to items in the printed report explaining as necessary and answering questions.

Mr. Pearse then moved to accept the report of the Auditors and the Treasurer. The motion was seconded by *Miss Adair.* Carried.

Mr. Siders then explained in detail the report of the Board of Trustees on the new building showing how all problems had been met and the care that had been exercised in borrowing funds and in making contracts. As he explained, Directors held in their hands the complete printed report giving all details.

It was moved by *Mr. Wannamaker* and seconded by *Mr. Lamkin* that the report be adopted as printed.

Mr. Pearse suggested the addition of a word of appreciation to the members of the Board of Trustees "for the seemingly careful and lucid way in which they have prepared this report for the members." The mover of the motion accepted the suggestion. The question being called for, the motion was put and carried, and the report declared adopted.

Mr. Siders then said: "A rose to the living is more than a wreath to the dead."

It was moved by *Mr. Strayer,* seconded by *Mr. Duggan,* that the vote taken by mail on the reclassification of headquarters staff be ratified. Question called for, the motion was put and unanimously carried. (See the minutes of the Executive Committee for the statement which was adopted.)

Owing to the noise from the street a motion was passed directing the *Secretary* to find another meeting place for the Tuesday meeting of the Board of Directors.

A motion was made that the *President* appoint a committee to nominate members to fill vacancies in the National Council and to report at the next meeting of the Board of Directors. Carried. The *President* stated she would appoint the Committee at the close of the meeting.

It was moved by *Mr. Lamkin* and seconded by *Mr. Pearse* that the meeting adjourn. Carried.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary.*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President.*

Columbus, Ohio, Tuesday Afternoon, July 1, 1930

The second meeting of the Board of Directors was called to order at 3:10 p. m., July 1, 1930, in the Colonial Room, Neil House, Columbus, Ohio, by *President Pyrtle.*

A motion was made by *Mr. Dempsey* to appropriate the sum of $10,000 to pay the delegates' expenses and $8500 for the expenses of the Board of Directors.

The motion was seconded by *Mr. Givens* of California. Carried.

The *Secretary* asked whether the rule to allow expenses to only those directors who attended every meeting was to be enforced. Whereupon *Mr. Wannamaker* moved to excuse *Mr. Jack* of Maine from attending the first meeting, his absence having been unavoidable. Others then requested excuses for unavoidable absence. The motion was amended to include the names of *Mr. Womack, Mr. Harned, Mr. Givens,* and others unavoidably absent.

The motion was seconded by *Mr. Strayer.* Carried.

The *President* then called for a report of the Budget Committee, and the chairman, *Mr. Rogers* reported as follows:

> In compliance with your instructions, the Committee has made as thorough and complete a study of the financial affairs of the Association as the circumstances and the limitation of time would permit. A number of open meetings of the Committee were held and opportunity given to all concerned to appear before the Committee and to present their requests for appropriations. You will doubtless recall that the total of the budget for the year was $475,344.48, including an emergency fund of $7500. And I think you will be pleased to learn that the total expenditures for the year were $3918.64 less than the total appropriation. Only in a few instances—and in a measure, unavoidably, it seems—were the respective maximum appropriations for the divisions of the headquarters staff and for the various departments and special committees exceeded.
>
> In line with the now well settled policy of the Board of Directors the amount of the revenue of the past year was adopted by the Committee as the maximum amount to be budgeted for the ensuing year. That amount, as shown by the auditor's report, is $512,444.19, an increase of $34,948.23 over the income of the preceding year. At the same time, the Committee was presented with various and sundry requests for appropriations aggregating $555,701.74, an amount $43,259.55 in excess of the anticipated revenue. It became necessary, therefore, for the Committee to pare that excess from the proposed budget and at the same time to make ample provision for all of the worthy activities of the Association. Moreover, it occurred to the Committee that in view of the present grave economic situation it would be well for us, if possible, without serious loss of efficiency in any department or division, to stop at a point well within the anticipated income of the ensuing year.

Concluding its report, the Committee wishes to make the following recommendations:

> First, that the respective total amounts finally budgeted for the divisions of the headquarters staff and the various departments and special committees, be in each case the maximum amounts that may be expended, except that on the written recommendation of the *Secretary* of the Association and with the formal approval of the Executive Committee the Emergency Fund may be drawn upon to provide for the unforeseen needs of a division, department, or committee.
>
> Second, that all appropriations for special committees be made on the basis of a committee, or subcommittee, of not to exceed five members.
>
> Third, that each department and special committee for which a lump sum appropriation is made, shall, as soon as practicable and before any expenditures

> are approved, file with the *Secretary* of the Association a detailed budget of its appropriation.
>
> Fourth, that in line with the policy adopted by the Board of Directors last year of making all current appropriations as soon as possible from available cash instead of anticipated revenues, the sum of $50,000 of the cash balance of $75,053.47 as shown on the auditor's report for the year 1929-30, be appropriated to apply on the budget for 1930-31, thereby making the net appropriation from anticipated revenue $451,717.79.
>
> Respectfully submitted,
>
> W. B. Mooney,
> Joseph Rosier,
> George W. Wannamaker,
> A. L. Whittenberg,
> L. W. Rogers, *Chairman*

Mr. Rogers moved the adoption of the report. Seconded by *Mr. Strayer.* Discussion followed. *Treasurer Smith* called attention to the small allowance for the use of the Council. *Mr. Eldredge* thought the Department of Classroom Teachers should have larger appropriations. Other items seemed low. In answer to each *Mr. Rogers* gave a satisfactory explanation. He explained that the $6500 in the emergency fund was to meet situations such as mentioned by *Mr. Smith. Mr. Kelley, Mr. Jack, Mr. Saunders,* and others participating in the discussions.

The question then being called for, the motion was put and carried and the report of the Budget Committee as given and printed was adopted. (The report is published elsewhere in the volume. See index.)

A motion was made by *Mr. Strayer* to express the appreciation of the Board of Directors to the Budget Committee for its careful report. It was seconded by *Mr. Thomas J. Walker,* and unanimously carried.

The *President* requested the members of the Budget Committee to stand.

After discussion as to the number of days for which expenses would be allowed, a motion was made by *Mr. Cunningham* to allow seven days. Seconded. Carried.

Roll call showed the following members present: Alabama—*Zebulon Judd,* Arizona—*E. W. Montgomery,* Arkansas—*J. P. Womack,* California—*Willard E. Givens,* Colorado—*W. B. Mooney,* Connecticut—*Gordon C. Swift,* Delaware—*Harry V. Holloway,* District of Columbia—*Edith L. Grosvenor,* Georgia—*M. L. Duggan,* Idaho—*C. F. Dienst,* Illinois—*A. L. Whittenberg,* Indiana—*Charles F. Miller,* Iowa—*Mary A. Lord,* Kansas—*M. E. Pearson,* Kentucky—*R. E. Williams,* Louisiana—*Annie T. Bell,* Maine—*William B. Jack,* Maryland—*William Burdick,* Michigan—*Webster H. Pearce,* Minnesota—*Alice Sullivan,* Mississippi—*H. V. Cooper,* Missouri—*Thomas J. Walker,* Montana—*R. J. Cunningham,* Nebraska—*M. C. Lefler,* Nevada—*Jennie A. Curieux,* New Hampshire—*Dana S. Jordan,* New Jersey—*Alexander J. Glennie,* New Mexico—*Mrs. H. F. Brock,* New York—*Harry W. Langworthy,* North Carolina—*T. Wingate Andrews,* North Dakota—*Minnie J. Nielson,* Ohio—*A. C. Eldredge,* Oregon—*F. C. Fitzpatrick,* Pennsylvania—*J. Herbert Kelley,* Porto Rico—*Francisco Vizcarrondo,* South Carolina—*George W. Wannamaker,* South Dakota—*Mabel K. Trooien,* Tennessee—*P. L. Harned,* Texas—*L. W. Rogers,* Vermont—*Clarence H. Dempsey,* Washington—*Arthur L. Marsh,* West Virginia—*Joseph Rosier,* and Wisconsin—*Edgar G. Doudna.*

Life directors present were *R. C. Moore, Carroll G. Pearse, Mary C. C. Bradford, George D. Strayer, Uel W. Lamkin, Charl O. Williams.*

The following report was made by *Mr. Lamkin,* Chairman of the Committee on Nomination for the Council:

> May I just make this explanation, *Madam Chairman,* in behalf of your Committee, *Mrs. Nielson* of South Dakota, *Miss Lord* of Iowa, and the Chair-

man, understanding that the Council members are chosen for a period of six years time, to be named by the Council itself, then by the Board of Directors of this institution. There is a proviso in the regulations of the Council to the effect that there shall not be more than seven members from any one state. That rule has been observed in the breach rather than in the observance heretofore. Your Committee thinks as long as there is a rule we should live up to it. There are ten members whose terms expire this year. They are as follows:

C. M. Beach, Superintendent of Schools, Enumclaw, Wash.

Francis G. Blair, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Ill.

M. C. Brittain, President, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Ga.

E. W. Butterfield, State Commissioner of Education, Hartford, Conn.

R. W. Foght, President, University of Wichita, Wichita, Kans.

L. N. Hines, President, State Normal School, Terre Haute, Ind.

Charles S. Meek, Superintendent of Schools, Toledo, Ohio.

Joseph H. Saunders, Superintendent of Schools, Newport News, Va.

R. E. Tidwell, accredited by the National Council to the Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

John Dewey, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

The Committee recommends *Mr. Tidwell* be correctly assigned to the University of Alabama where he would have room to serve, and instead of dropping *John Dewey,* Columbia University, New York, he be made an honorary member, which is another classification which the Council has established, and that all of them, therefore, be reelected for a term of six years.

There are three vacancies, therefore, one caused by the death of *David B. Felmley,* one caused by the fact that *Walter R. Siders* became an ex-officio member of the Council, and one caused by the change in classification of *John Dewey* from an active member to an honorary-active member.

Last year *M. G. Neale,* Dean of the School of Education of the University of Missouri, was elected a member of the Council, I think by this body. When his name was certified, it was found there was no room in the Council for him. There being no room, he was left out. It was suggested by the Council members on that account that this group should give *Dr. Neale* the first one of these vacancies. We recommend, therefore, that he be elected for the term which he would have served had there been room for him last year. We further recommend that to fill the vacancy caused by the death of *David Felmley, Miss Kate B. Wofford,* County Superintendent of Schools, Laurens County, South Carolina, be elected for the term expiring 1932; and because of the vacancy caused by the transfer of *Walter Siders* to the ex-officio list, that *J. B. Edmonson,* School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, be named.

Our Committee report, therefore, *Madam Chairman,* is that the following persons be named on the Council:

John Dewey, Columbia University, New York, N. Y., honorary-active member; for the term expiring 1932, *Kate B. Wofford,* County Superintendent of Schools, Laurens County, South Carolina; for the term expiring 1933, *J. B. Edmonson;* for the terms expiring 1936: *C. M. Beach,* Superintendent of Schools, Enumclaw, Washington; *Francis G. Blair,* State Superintendent of Schools, Springfield, Illinois; *M. C. Brittain,* President, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia; *E. W. Butterfield,* State Commissioner of Education, Hartford, Connecticut; *R. W. Foght,* President, University of Wichita, Wichita, Kansas; *L. N. Hines,* President, State Normal School, Terre Haute, Indiana; *Charles S. Meek,* Superintendent of Schools, Toledo, Ohio; and *Joseph H. Saunders,* Superintendent of Schools, Newport News, Virginia.

Mr. Lamkin then moved the adoption of the report. Seconded. Carried.

Mr. Lamkin moved the election of *Eugene Fair* to the place now held by *Dr. John R. Kirk* and to place *John R. Kirk* on the honorary-active roll.

The motion being seconded by *Mr. Saunders,* was put and carried.

The President, *Miss Pyrtle,* expressed appreciation for the help received during the year from directors. *Mr. T. Wingate Andrews* moved a vote of commendation for *Miss Pyrtle's* administration. The Directors stood in hearty applause.

The President thereupon announced that the session stood adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President.*

Columbus, Ohio, Friday, July 4, 1930

(New Board of Directors)

Concluding a breakfast at 7:30 a. m. July 4, 1930, at the Neil House, retiring President *E. Ruth Pyrtle* called the Board of Directors to order and after referring to the fine support which she had received from them, she promised the same support to her successor. She then praised *Dr. Sutton* for faithful, efficient service and introduced him as the new president and as the one to preside at this meeting.

As he arose to speak the applause was general over the room. After complimenting the administration of *Miss Pyrtle,* and after asking for patience on the part of the directors as well as support he called on the *Secretary* to call the roll. He distributed blanks to be filled out. In the meantime the resignation of each of the following was presented:

H. V. Cooper of Mississippi in favor of *W. M. Taylor* of Mississippi; *Dwight Porter* of Nebraska in favor of *Mrs. Elizabeth Geneau; E. G. Doudna* of Wisconsin in favor of *William T. Darling; Frank E. Howard* of Hawaii in favor of *V. M. Aitken;* and *Clarence H. Dempsey* of Vermont in favor of *Caroline Woodruff.*

Mr. Rogers moved to accept the resignations and to elect the persons recommended for the vacancies. Seconded. Carried.

The roll call showed the following present: Alabama—*Zebulon Judd,* Arizona—*Daniel F. Jantzen,* Arkansas—*J. P. Womack,* California—*Willard E. Givens,* Colorado—*W. B. Mooney,* Connecticut—*Gordon C. Swift,* Delaware—*Harry V. Holloway,* District of Columbia—*Edith Louise Grosvenor,* Georgia—*M. L. Duggan,* Hawaii—*Victor M. Aitken,* Idaho—*C. F. Dienst,* Illinois—*A. L. Whittenberg,* Indiana—*Charles F. Miller,* Iowa—*Mary A. Lord,* Kansas—*M. E. Pearson,* Kentucky—*R. E. Williams,* Louisiana—*Annie T. Bell,* Maine—*William B. Jack,* Maryland—*William Burdick,* Massachusetts—*Annie C. Woodward,* Michigan—*Webster H. Pearce,* Minnesota—*Alice Sullivan,* Mississippi—*H. V. Cooper,* Missouri—*Thomas J. Walker,* Montana—*R. J. Cunningham,* Nebraska—*Mrs. Elizabeth Geneau,* Nevada—*Jennie A. Curieux,* New Hampshire—*Dana S. Jordan,* New Jersey—*Alexander J. Glennie,* New Mexico—*Mrs. H. F. Brock,* New York—*Harry W. Langworthy,* North Carolina—*T. Wingate Andrews,* North Dakota—*Minnie J. Nielson,* Ohio—*A. C. Eldredge,* Oregon—*F. C. Fitzpatrick,* Pennsylvania—*J. Herbert Kelley,* Porto Rico—*Francisco Vizcarrondo,* South Carolina—*George W. Wannamaker,* South Dakota—*Mrs. Mabel K. Trooien,* Tennessee—*P. L. Harned,* Texas—*L. W. Rogers,* Utah—*Arch M. Thurman,* Vermont—*Clarence H. Dempsey,* Washington—*Arthur L. Marsh,* West Virginia—*William C. Cook,* Wisconsin—*William T. Darling,* Wyoming—*A. H. Dixon,* Colorado—*Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford,* Missouri—*Uel W. Lamkin,* Wisconsin—*Carroll G. Pearse,* Illinois—*Robert C. Moore,* District of Columbia—*Charl O. Williams.*

The following were also present: Georgia—*Willis A. Sutton,* President-elect, Indiana—*Henry L. Smith,* Indiana—*Charles O. Williams,* New Jersey—*Walter R. Siders,* Nebraska—*E. Ruth Pyrtle,* Mississippi—*Wm. M. Taylor,* Virginia—*Mrs.*

Edith B. Joynes, Virginia—*Joseph H. Saunders,* Washington—*Mrs. Josephine Corliss Preston,* West Virginia—*Joseph Rosier.*

The President then called on *Mr. Rogers,* Chairman of the Budget Committee, who stated that the report had been accepted by the Representative Assembly as prepared by the Committee and recommended by the Board of Directors. He then moved that the appropriations be made as designated in the formal report. The motion was seconded by *Miss Sullivan* of Minnesota. Carried.

The next business being the election of a member of the Executive Committee, *Mrs. Bradford* nominated *Miss Eula F. Hunter* and *Mr. Holloway* nominated *Mr. Joseph Rosier.*

Miss Bell of Louisiana seconded the nomination of *Miss Hunter.* There were forty-one votes cast for *Mr. Rosier* and sixteen for *Miss Hunter* whereupon *Mr. Rosier* was declared elected. *Mrs. Joynes* and *Mr. Holloway* served as tellers.

Mr. Wannamaker nominated *Miss Kate V. Wofford* of South Carolina to succeed herself as a member of the Board of Trustees. *Mr. Pearse* moved that the *Secretary* be authorized to cast the ballot for *Miss Wofford.* Seconded. Carried. The *Secretary* cast the ballot as directed and the Chairman announced the election of *Miss Wofford* to succeed herself as a member of the Board of Trustees.

After discussion as to the proper procedure in electing members of the Budget Committee, *Mr. Glennie* of New Jersey moved that the five present members be re-elected. The motion was seconded by *Miss Sullivan* and by *Mr. Walker* of Missouri.

The *Secretary* explained that the vote would only apply to four members of the Committee since *Mr. Rosier* was not to be Director for 1930-31. He then on the request of *Mr. Langworthy* of New York gave the names of the Budget Committee as *Mr. Rogers,* Chairman; *Mr. George Wannamaker, Mr. Joseph Rosier, Mr. W. B. Mooney,* and *Mr. A. L. Whittenberg.*

Mr. Lamkin then moved to amend the motion by substituting the name of *Mr. J. Herbert Kelley* of Pennsylvania for that of *Mr. Rosier.*

After discussion the motion was seconded by *Mrs. Joynes* and carried.

The next item of business being that of a preferential vote for the next convention, *Mr. Wannamaker* called attention to the need of limiting the time of speakers extending invitations. Then *Mr. Duggan* of Georgia moved to limit the speaker to three minutes. Seconded. Carried.

The *President* called for invitations.

Mr. Givens of California then took the floor to extend the invitation for Los Angeles. He said in part:

> It is a pleasure for me this morning to present the invitation from California for the National Education Association to hold its Convention in our largest city, Los Angeles.
>
> I want to invite you to this, the fifth city in size in the United States, which has at the present time I am told more members in the National Education Association than any other city in the United States regardless of size.
>
> I have letters here from the Governor, the Mayor, superintendents of schools, and from all the educational organizations and universities in the state. May I read you just briefly from two or three of these letters. (He then read a letter from the Governor, one from the Mayor, and called attention to the unanimous desire in the state for this convention.)
>
> So far as the accommodations are concerned, *Mr. Allan* of the N. E. A. has been there already and he has made an investigation. We have all sorts of auditorium facilities and we have in Los Angeles hotel facilities to take care of two or three N. E. A. conventions at the same time. Along with that we have reasonable, very reasonable, and good hotels.

> We are inviting you sincerely because we believe the teacher should have the opportunity of seeing our country and becoming acquainted with it throughout. We assure you of every facility and all the welcome that California has to offer when you arrive.

The President, Mr. Sutton, then recognized Mr. Threlkeld of Colorado who extended the invitation from Denver. He said in part:

> I assure you it is a pleasure for me to extend the invitation to hold your meeting at Denver. In extending that invitation I want to assure you that I represent all of the interests of Colorado.
>
> I might call your attention to one or two of our peculiarities with respect to our physical set-up. One is that all of our equipment, including the city auditorium, numerous meeting places for departments, including the state capitol and all the buildings that we can use, are centrally located within convenient walking distance of any of the hotels in which you might be located for this meeting. Furthermore, Denver is just about the same size city as Columbus, and personally I think it has some advantages. We are neither a small nor a large city. The 1930 census puts us within about 2000 people of the size of Columbus. It is just about the size of city to receive a convention of this kind with a great deal of enthusiasm and to give extensive notice in the press.
>
> Denver is well located for the holding of a meeting in the west. I have been told that the financial saving in Denver as compared with a meeting farther away is considerable. We are a summer vacation center, placed where we believe large numbers of classroom teachers would be glad to come and have a vacation trip out of it and attend the meetings of the National Education Association.
>
> In conclusion, I want to call your attention to the fact the last meeting of the N. E. A. held in Denver was in 1909. Since that time the meeting has been held seven times in the west, all those seven times being farther west than Denver, five of those meetings having been held on the Pacific Coast, three of them in California. Under all these circumstances we beg you to give serious consideration to our invitation to hold your 1931 meeting in Denver and if you come I can assure you the whole Rocky Mountain region will do everything in its power to have you leave feeling you have had the greatest convention in the history of the N. E. A.

The *Secretary* held in his hands invitations from Milwaukee and Wisconsin for a later meeting if that could be considered. The *President* asked *Mrs. Joynes* and *Mr. Holloway* to serve as tellers the vote being taken by ballot. While waiting for a report of the tellers *Mr. Fitzpatrick* of Oregon made a motion that the application for a Department of Platoon Systems be received and passed on to the Representative Assembly to be laid over and voted upon in 1931.

Mr. Pearse of Wisconsin and others were willing to have the notice for this department given but they would question the wisdom of creating it. The *Secretary* explained that the Board of Directors would need to make the request before the Representative Assembly would consider it. But the notice could be given now he thought and the recommendation could be made next year, at the first meeting of the Board of Directors. The notice was allowed to stand but no vote was taken.

A motion was made by *Mr. Gwinn* to adopt the changes made by the Executive Committee in the personnel classification of the Headquarters Staff. Seconded. Carried. (Printed in the minutes of the Executive Committee. See index.)

Mr. Rosier asked for the floor and on being recognized, said:

> On behalf of my friends and representing the minority on yesterday's little affair, I want to say that we are loyal to the great aims and purposes of this Association. We don't want the outside world to have any thought that there is any division on any lack of unity among the educational forces of this country in carrying forward the movements for progress. We are coming to a crucial period in many states and in many parts of the country when all the educational forces of this country ought to stand together in preserving what we have gained in the last ten or fifteen years, and in pushing forward wherever we can movements for progress. So in order that there may be no misunderstanding about the unity of this organization, I want to congratulate Dr. Sutton and pledge him the loyal cooperation of myself and my friends.

Whereupon President Sutton spoke as follows:

> Thank you very much. I am sure that the applause speaks for itself as to the appreciation from this splendid body and I want to express my own very, very great appreciation for that wonderful talk and for the pledging of support. As I have said all the week that I was sure if *Mr. Rosier* was elected he would have no heartier support than I would give. I thank you. I feel sure we shall have a pleasant year working together for a great cause.

The tellers reported fifty-seven ballots cast, thirty-six being for Los Angeles, twenty for Denver and one blank.

A motion was made to make the vote for Los Angeles a unanimous vote. Seconded. Carried.

Mr. Pearse moved that the vote of preference be referred to the Executive Committee with power to act. Seconded by *Mr. Givens.* Carried.

The following then offered their resignations in favor of members regularly elected but not in attendance at this meeting.

Miss Woodruff in favor of *Mr. Dempsey* of Vermont; *Miss Neilson* in favor of *L. E. White* of North Dakota; *Mrs. Elizabeth Geneau* in favor of *Dwight L. Porter* of Nebraska; *Mr. Aitken* in favor of *Mr. Owen Long* of Hawaii; *Mr. Darling* in favor of *Mr. Doudna* of Wisconsin; *Mr. W. M. Taylor* in favor of *H. V. Cooper* of Mississippi; and *Miss Croydon* in favor of *S. B. Nisssen* of South Dakota.

It was then moved by *Miss Williams,* seconded by *Mr. Gwinn* that the resignations just given be accepted and the people named in giving the resignation be elected as Directors for the respective states. Carried.

Mr. Givens again thanked the Directors for arranging to meet in California in 1931. He expressed his grateful appreciation to *Mr. Mooney* in particular.

There being no further business, *President Sutton* declared the session adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*
WILLIS A. SUTTON, *President.*

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Washington, D. C., January 13, 1930

A meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Education Association was held at the Association headquarters in Washington, Monday afternoon, January 13, with all members of the committee present: *Uel W. Lamkin, Walter R. Siders, Frank E. Reynolds, Henry Lester Smith,* and *E. Ruth Pyrtle,* Chairman. The *Chairman* called the meeting to order at 3:45 oclock and explained that the purpose of the meeting, as stated in the call, was to attend to all emergency matters that might be presented and to participate with the Board of Trustees in considering questions pertaining to the new building. *Mr. Saunders,* of the Board of Trustees, on invitation, participated in the discussions.

The *Chairman* then presented a program plan for the Columbus meeting and asked for suggestions. A few points were discussed and members were requested to send in advice and suggestions at their convenience.

A motion was made by *Mr. Reynolds* and seconded by *Mr. Smith* "to advance not to exceed $1000 to meet expenditures at World Federation headquarters as ordered by the president and field agent in carrying forward their work for raising funds for their organization, such expenditures to be limited to stationery, stamps, clerical help, printing, multigraphing, mailing, etc., and to hereby appropriate for that purpose $1000 out of the emergency appropriation." Members voted as follows: *Mr. Lamkin,* "yes"; *Mr. Reynolds,* "yes"; *Mr. Smith,* "yes"; and *Miss Pyrtle, Chairman,* "yes"; *Mr. Siders* did not vote. The Chairman stated that the vote carried and that the appropriation was duly made.

The *Secretary* explained that the officers of the Indiana State Association were about ready to arrange for an all-inclusive plan of membership with the National Education Association. He outlined a proposal for a combined membership fee of $3.50 of which $2 would go to the N. E. A. and $1.50 to Indiana, the plan providing 16 pages to be added to the *Journal* as the Indiana supplement.

A motion was made by *Mr. Siders* and seconded by *Mr. Lamkin* to authorize the *Secretary* to work out the details of the above plan with the state association and to prepare a contract for the signature of the officers of the Indiana and national associations, the *President* and *Secretary* being duly authorized to sign for the N. E. A. Carried.

The *Secretary* presented information concerning the help given to the law enforcement commission in arranging for a study of the effect of prohibition on youth since 1920, and concerning the help given to the Department of Commerce in its efforts to speed up the construction of necessary school buildings throughout the United States. Approval was expressed but no action was taken.

A brief report on life membership was presented and approved. There was satisfaction with the gain of 12,500 active members for the year 1928-29. In view of the need for funds for the new building, it was understood that the *Secretary* would push the drive for active and life members during the remainder of the year.

A motion was made by *Mr. Siders* and seconded by *Mr. Reynolds,* to ratify the action of the *Secretary* in accepting the resignations of *Geneva Stiffler, Margaret Stimson,* and *Selden Carlyle Adams.* Carried. The *Secretary* explained that these positions had not been filled, but that he had provided the necessary temporary help for the divisions.

A motion was made by *Mr. Lamkin* and seconded by *Mr. Smith* to authorize the *Secretary* to prepare through the Division of Publications, during the next two years, a volume of not to exceed 600 pages of the famous reports of Horace Mann. Carried. The *Secretary* stated that he would ask *Mr. Morgan* to edit the volume.

A motion was passed to postpone the request for additional funds for the Department of Adult Education until the meeting of the Committee in February. The *Secretary* was advised to ascertain from the Budget Committee whether the request had received the attention of that Committee in June.

The *Secretary* presented in due form the report on salaries of members of the staff. No action was required on this report. He promised to investigate to see whether a savings could not be made in expenditures in the divisions, particularly in telegrams and postage.

A motion was then made to adjourn subject to the call of the President, *E. Ruth Pyrtle.* Carried.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President.*

Atlantic City, N. J., February 27, 1930

Thursday Morning, February 27, 1930

A meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Education Association was held Thursday forenoon at 10:30 in room 300 of the Shelburne Hotel, Atlantic City, New Jersey. Members present were: *Uel W. Lamkin, F. E. Reynolds* and *E. Ruth Pyrtle,* President. *Mr. Saunders* of the Board of Trustees was present by invitation. *H. L. Smith* and *W. R. Siders* were delayed owing to attendance at other meetings.

After an explanation of the need of additional room during the construction of the new headquarters building and the statement that a building had been rented tentatively, *Mr. Reynolds* moved that the *Secretary* be authorized to rent the building described at $275 a month to begin as of February 15, 1930 for a year or until the new headquarters building is completed. Seconded by *Mr. Lamkin.* Carried.

Mr. Allan recommended that the contract with *Judd and Detweiler* for printing the *Proceedings* be continued. He explained that owing to the larger edition, there would be a decrease in the printing cost for each *Proceedings* of about 8½ cents. *Mr. Lamkin* moved that the contract be approved. Seconded by *Mr. Reynolds.* Carried.

A motion was made by *Mr. Reynolds* and seconded by *Mr. Lamkin* to authorize the *Secretary* to provide all necessary space at headquarters for the use of the World Federation of Education Associations and for conferences. Carried.

Moved by *Mr. Reynolds* and seconded by *Mr. Lamkin* to recess until two oclock. Carried.

Thursday Afternoon, February 27, 1930

At 2 oclock in the afternoon the meeting was again called to order with the following present: *W. R. Siders, F. E. Reynolds, H. L. Smith,* and *E. Ruth Pyrtle,* the Chairman. *Miss Wofford* of the Board of Trustees was present on invitation.

Mr. Lamkin moved to add enough to the unexpended balance of the appropriation of the Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions to make $1000 but not to exceed that amount. Seconded by *Mr. Siders.* Carried.

Mr. Lamkin made a motion to adopt item 1 of the recommendations of the *Secretary* on salaries. Seconded by *Mr. Reynolds.* Carried. The item is as follows:

> 1. To ratify the vote by mail accepting the resignation of the following:
> *Geneva Stiffler,* Field Division, place filled by temporary help.
> *Margaret Stimson,* Research Librarian, filled by temporary help.
> *S. Carlyle Adams,* Publications, filled by *Belmont Farley.*

Mr. Lamkin moved to approve of item 2. Seconded by *Mr. Siders.* Carried. Item 2 is as follows:

> 2. The following changes from the temporary roll to the permanent roll to begin June 1 on the minimum salary:

Division	Name	Years in Service	Class	Salary to Begin June 1
Membership	*Dorothea Cutting*	5 years	3B	$1200
Publications	*Helen Campbell*	2 "	3B	1200
Research	*Margaret Lane*	2 "	3B	1200
Research	*Beatrice Goodman*	2 "	3B	1200
Research	*Lulu Wallace*	2 "	3B	1200
Research	*Margaret Bruffey*	2 "	3B	1200
Research	*Frances Waldron*	1 "	3AA	1400 (now $25 per week)

Mr. Smith moved to place the first two names in item 3 on the permanent roll, Class 3A, at a salary of $1550. Seconded by *Mr. Siders.* Carried. The following is item 3:

3. The following changes in classification:

Division	Name	Years in Service	Class	Salary
Publications	*Hazel Arrington*	2 years	Temp. to 3A	$1500 to $1550
Publications	*Vera Stafford*	2 "	temp. to 3A	1500 to 1550
Publications	*Lyle W. Ashby*	4 "	2A to 1B	2040 to 2500
Research	*Alline McBride*	4 "	3B to 3A	1260 to 1360

Mr. Siders moved that *Mr. Ashby* be given the normal increase. Seconded by *Mr. Reynolds.* Carried. A motion was then made to place *Miss McBride's* salary at $1360 without change of classification. Second by *Mr. Lamkin.* Carried.

After considering item 5 *Mr. Lamkin* moved that the Association pay two-thirds of $4100 as its part of *Mr. Hubbard's* salary leaving the Elementary Principals to add $1600 or as much as the Department may wish. Seconded by *Mr. Siders.* Carried. Item 5 is as follows:

> 5. That *Mr. Frank W. Hubbard's* salary for two thirds of his time be fixed at $3200 and that he be privileged to work for the Department for one-third his time at not to exceed $1600.

Mr. Smith moved to adopt item 4. Seconded by *Mr. Reynolds.* Carried. Item 4 is as follows:

> 4. The authorization to employ a librarian to take the place of *Mrs. Margaret Stimson* (resigned) at a salary not to exceed $2000. *Mrs. Stimson* would have received $1900 next year. There is need for a first class librarian and one who can render assistance to those working on research problems.

Mr. Lamkin moved to approve of item 6. Seconded by *Mr. Siders.* Carried. Item 6 is as follows:

> 6. A double increase in salary for *Mr. W. G. Carr* owing to his efficiency and also owing to the heavier duties involving on him during *Mr. Norton's* absence.

In reference to item 8 *Mr. Siders* moved that *Mrs. Norton's* resignation be accepted to take effect August 1. Seconded by *Mr. Lamkin.* Carried. A motion was then made by *Mr. Reynolds* to authorize the *Secretary* to employ *Mrs. Norton* at one-third her present salary for a period of three months beginning August 1. Seconded by *Mr. Lamkin.* Item 8 is as follows:

> 8. That the Secretary be authorized to arrange with *Mrs. Norton* to do partime work after August in completing the work that she is now doing on yearbooks. She is willing to give one-third time for a few months in order to complete the work which committees think can be done by no one else.

A vote was taken to ratify vote by mail to permit *Mr. Norton* to work for the Association next year on one-fourth time. Carried. The following is the action ratified:

> 1. That we permit *Mr. Norton* to accept the position of Visiting Professor at Columbia University for 1930-31 beginning August 1.
>
> 2. That we arrange for him to give one-fourth time to the Association on a salary of $166.67 a month plus the necessary traveling expenses in order to spend time at Washington.

It was moved by *Mr. Lamkin* that the Secretary be directed to prepare a substitute classification for the July meeting for classes 1A and 1B providing for assistants or associates in Divisions. Seconded by *Mr. Smith*. Carried.

Mr. Siders moved the adoption of item 7. Seconded by *Mr. Lamkin*. Carried. It was thought that the position should not be filled until near the time of *Mrs. Norton's* leaving. Item 7 is as follows:

> 7. That the *Secretary* be authorized to secure as soon as possible, an assistant in research at a salary not to exceed $4000 to take the place soon to become vacant on the resignation of *Mrs. Norton.*

Mr. Siders moved that the *Secretary* direct the Director of Field Service to take as her work the whole field of school legislation and that her time and activities be directed as the *Secretary* considers pertinent to the issues in hand. Seconded by *Mr. Smith.* Carried.

On motion the meeting adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President.*

Columbus, Ohio, June 27-July 4, 1930

Friday Evening, June 27, 1930

The meeting was called to order at eight oclock, Friday evening, June 27, 1930, in the President's Suite, Deshler-Wallick Hotel, Columbus, Ohio, by the *President.* There were present: *Uel W. Lamkin, Walter R. Siders, Henry Lester Smith, Frank E. Reynolds,* and *E. Ruth Pyrtle,* President.

The first order of business was the adoption of the minutes of January 13, and February 27, 1930. It was moved by *Mr. Siders,* and seconded by *Mr. Reynolds,* that the minutes be approved as prepared. There being no discussion, the motion was put and unanimously carried, and the minutes declared adopted as printed.

The Secretary presented the following report:

> In compliance with the authorization of the Executive Committee to prepare a substitute classification for classes 1A and 1B in the personnel classification making due provision for associates and assistants, I make the following recommendations:
>
> That 1A which reads as follows:

1A Associate Director in Research Division

Basic	per year	$4500
Maximum	per year	7000
Annual Increase		250

be changed to read:

1A Associate Directors of Major Creative Divisions

Basic	per year	$4250
Maximum	per year	6750
Annual Increase		250

That the 1B which reads as follows:

1B Directors of other Divisions

Basic	per year	$2500
Maximum	per year	4500
Annual Increase		200

be changed to read:

> 1B Directors of other Divisions and Assistants of Major Creative Divisions
>
> | | | |
> |---|---|---|
> | Basic | per year | $2500 |
> | Maximum | per year | 4500 |
> | Annual Increase | | 200 |
>
> Notice that I am recommending that the class 1A formed previously for one assistant be broadened to accommodate others having similar qualifications, and the 1B likewise broadened to accommodate those next to the Associate Directors in Major Divisions. While these changes are simple they seem to fully accomplish what is desired.

After some discussion, it was moved by *Mr. Lamkin,* seconded by *Mr. Reynolds,* that should this classification be adopted, it is the sense of the Executive Committee that the "Creative Divisions" are understood to be at present the Divisions of Research and Publications. The motion being put, was unanimously carried.

It was suggested by *Mr. Lamkin* and concurred in by the respective members of the Executive Committee that the Classification 1B be changed to read Assistant Directors of Major Creative Divisions.

There being no further discussion it was moved by *Mr. Siders,* seconded by *Mr. Reynolds,* that the Classification Plan modified by motions be adopted and presented for the approval of the Board of Directors. Carried.

It was moved by *Mr. Lamkin,* seconded by *Mr. Siders,* that the Committee ratify the appointment of *Miss Anna Haddow,* class 2A, salary $2000; and that of *Richard R. Foster,* class 1B, salary $4000. (Both in the Research Division.) There being no discussion, the motion was put and carried.

The next item presented for the consideration of the Executive Committee was a recommendation that *Mrs. Margaret A. Norton* be retained at one-third her annual salary as long as needed by the Department of Superintendence. It was stated that the Department of Superintendence has specially requested that the period of her employment be continued for the rest of the year or as much longer as necessary in order to complete the work now under way.

After discussion it was moved by *Mr. Lamkin,* seconded by *Mr. Smith* that the *Secretary's* recommendation to retain *Mrs. Norton* to finish work under way be approved. Motion carried.

It was stated by the *Secretary* that he concurred in the recommendation of *Mr. Shankland* that *Miss Macie Templeman,* who is now on the temporary roll be placed on the permanent roll in Class 3B, at a beginning salary of $1200. It was moved by *Mr. Smith,* seconded by *Mr. Reynolds,* that the recommendation be adopted. Motion carried.

It was brought to the attention of the Committee that the *Secretary* had been instructed to take up with *Miss Williams,* the Director of Field Service, the matter of assisting the various states of the Union with legislative work. He reported that the action of the Committee had been complied with and that some work had already been done.

Mr. Lamkin made a report of the proceedings of the Advisory Committee appointed by *Secretary Wilbur.* He expected a report to be made soon which would be most satisfactory to all leaders in the profession.

It was moved by *Mr. Lamkin* and seconded by *Mr. Siders* that the following resolutions be adopted:

> The employees of this Association shall be governed in their public announcements and procedure by the policies adopted by the duly constituted authorities of this Association. If no policy is in existence, they shall consult the *Secretary* for determination of procedure. The employees are urged to make through proper channels from time to time suggestions for the improvement of the

Association. Such suggestions will be welcome and are expected. Unanimously carried.

On the suggestion of *Trustee Saunders* it was moved by *Mr. Lamkin,* seconded by *Mr. Siders,* that the Executive Committee recommend to the Board of Directors for their consideration, the following: (1) Set a dead line at which time all resolutions affecting the policies of the Association shall be presented in writing to the Resolutions Committee; (2) suggest to the Resolutions Committee that hereafter resolutions of the Association be confined to new policies or a reaffirmation of old policies which are of particular importance at that time, or a reversal of the present policy on any subject that might be desired at that time; (3) that the Resolutions Committee shall write the resolutions in the fewest possible number of words; (4) that the Association shall publish in pamphlet form for general distribution to its members a statement of policies approved by the Association, or copies of resolutions. There being no further discussion, the motion was voted upon and carried.

It was moved by *Mr. Siders,* seconded by *Mr. Reynolds,* that the meeting adjourn subject to the call of the Chair. Motion carried.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President.*

New Executive Committee, July 4, 1930

A meeting of the Executive Committee was called to order by the *President* at 1:50 p. m., July 4, 1930. There were present, *Willis A. Sutton,* President, *Henry Lester Smith, E. Ruth Pyrtle, Joseph Rosier, Walter R. Siders,* and, on invitation, *Kate Wofford* and *Joseph H. Saunders* of the Board of Trustees.

Miss Williams of the headquarters staff came before the committee to ask for a two months vacation period, one month being due for this year and one month for last year which she had not used. After giving an outline of the work in which she had been engaged during the past year, particularly the work which she had done in connection with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, she pointed out the advantage of the two months trip abroad which she had in mind.

The point was raised whether the Association should recognize the principle of vacations being permitted to carry over and become cumulative, and whether it was wise to permit a precedent to be set in that regard. Members of the Committee expressed approval but wished to avoid setting a precedent.

It was moved by *Mr. Rosier,* inasmuch as the request seemed to be reasonable and inasmuch as a report is to be presented by the *Secretary* at the February meeting covering the general situation in the office of the N. E. A. headquarters as to vacation periods that the matter of *Miss Williams'* vacation be left in the hands of *Secretary Crabtree* with power to act. The motion was duly seconded by *Mr. Smith,* and there being no further discussion, was carried, with one dissenting vote. The *Secretary* asked whether he could consider this action as approving of *Miss Williams'* request. *Mr. Siders* specifically objected unless the motion should include that in voting affirmatively on this particular motion it be understood that in so doing the Committee was considering this as a special matter and was not setting a precedent. *Mr. Rosier* stated he would be very glad to accept *Mr. Siders* suggestion and to incorporate it in his motion, whereupon *Mr. Siders* also voted for the motion. *Miss Williams* thanked the board for its action and thereupon retired from the meeting.

The next matter for the consideration of the Executive Committee was that of the location of the next convention. *Mr. Allan* outlined the conditions that he had found in both Denver and Los Angeles and the advantages and disadvantages of each place, stating, however, that either city would be able to properly care for the convention. It was suggested by *Mr. Allan* that the Executive Committee enter into a contract with the people representing the Chamber of Commerce and the school authorities of Los Angeles submitting to them a contract covering the conditions that the N. E. A. required and which it was known the city of Los Angeles was in a position to offer.

It was moved by *Mr. Smith* that *Mr. Allan's* suggestion be followed and that such a contract be made with Los Angeles. Seconded by *Mr. Siders.* Carried.

It was stated by the *Secretary* that in the meeting of the old Committee *Mr. Lamkin* had expressed a very strong desire for a more vigorous effort for retirement allowances for state associations. He had promised *Mr. Lamkin* to personally promote the plan. He desired to know whether it would be agreeable and satisfactory to the new Executive Committee for him to go ahead and do the best that he and the headquarters staff could do. The Committee indicated its approval. It was stated that the laying of the cornerstone would take place July 25th and it was desirable that as many as possible of the Executive Committee and Board of Trustees attend.

Miss Wofford stated she had a report to make to the Committee on the matter of electing a member of the staff to serve as an Interpreter of Rural Information and Data.

After hearing the report it was moved by *Miss Pyrtle* that *Secretary Crabtree* be authorized to consult with the Advisory Committee which had been appointed by the Rural Department and ascertain their needs and plans and that he bring this data to the Executive Committee at the February meeting for consideration. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Smith* and carried.

The *Secretary* stated that *Mr. Wannamaker* had felt very much hurt over the report that a staff member had forbidden the press to mention his address favorably.

He had asked *Mr. Wannamaker* to come to the meeting and explain matters to the Executive Committee. *Mr. Wannamaker* was then presented and explained what had come to him. The *Secretary* stated that he would consider it a serious matter for a staff member to prejudice the press against any member of the association. He had a denial from *Mr. Farley* but he would investigate further. After having heard *Mr. Wannamaker,* the Executive Committee assured him they felt there must be some error. It was not the desire of the Executive Committee to have any such condition exist. The Chairman thanked him for bringing the matter to the attention of the Committee.

Mr. Smith brought before the Executive Committee the fact that the National Council of Education had requested $1500 of available funds for three committees, and stated that he did not have an opportunity to appear before the Budget Committee in time to present that matter to them, but that he had taken the matter up with the Board of Directors and that it was his understanding that both the Board of Directors and the Executive Committee in a previous meeting had agreed that on the recommendation of the Secretary the Executive Committee would be authorized to take that amount of money from the Contingent Fund.

It was moved by *Mr. Siders,* after considerable discussion and after the *Secretary* stated he wished to recommend the allowance that the sum of $1500 be set aside from the Contingent Fund for the use of the Council if, when, and as needed, which motion was seconded by *Miss Pyrtle,* and upon a vote duly carried.

There being no further business, *President Sutton* took a few minutes to speak of the year's work. He spoke highly of the program and of the convention. He was sure he would have the hearty cooperation of the members of the Executive Committee and the Board of Trustees.

There being no further business to come before the Committee at this time, the meeting adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*
WILLIS A. SUTTON, *President.*

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Atlanta, Georgia, June 28-July 4, 1929

Friday, June 28, 1929

The Board of Trustees met in the President's Suite, Ansley Hotel at 10:45, June 28, 1929 with the following members present: *Uel W. Lamkin, J. H. Saunders, Kate V. Wofford,* and Chairman *W. R. Siders.*

The first question under discussion was the relation of the Association funds, investments and trust officers, and the Board of Trustees. The Chairman stated that this question had been submitted to the Association's attorney and his opinion was given as follows:

C. ALBERT WHITE
Attorney at Law
Washington Loan and Trust Bldg.
Washington, D. C.

Washington, D. C.
June 15, 1929.

J. W. Crabtree, Esq.,
Secretary, National Education Association,
Washington, D. C.

Dear Sir:

I received your communication of recent date in which you ask my opinion whether certain plans of procedure on the part of the Association are in harmony with the Charter and Bylaws of the Association.

As your query is in the form of questions, I shall answer them *seriatim*.

> *Question 1:* The present practise is for the Board of Trustees to elect the Secretary and for the Board of Directors and the Executive Committee to direct his work. Is it in accordance with the Charter and Bylaws for the Executive Committee to control the work of the Secretary or should he work under the direction of the Board of Trustees?
>
> *Answer, Question 1:* Section seven (7) of the Charter of the Association provides for the election of the Secretary by the Board of Trustees, who shall fix his compensation and his term of office.
>
> In article three (3), section two (2) of the Bylaws of the Association we find the following: "The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate record of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors and Executive Committee, shall conduct the business of the Association as provided in the Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws, and in all matters not definitely prescribed therein shall be under the direction of the Board of Directors or of the Executive Committee acting for the Board of Directors, and in the absence of instructions from the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the President."
>
> In article four (4), section (4) of the Bylaws, we find the following: "The Board of Directors shall approve all bills incurred by itself or by the Executive Committee or the President or the Secretary acting under the authority of the Board of Directors; shall appropriate from the current funds of the year the amounts of money ordered to be paid by the Representative Assembly;" and so forth.
>
> I am, therefore, of the opinion, from the foregoing extracts from the Charter and Bylaws, that the Secretary is (except where otherwise specifically prescribed in the Bylaws) under the control and direction of the Board of Di-

rectors or the Executive Committee acting for the Board of Directors and in absence of instructions from the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee, under the direction and control of the President of the Association.

Question 2: The present practise is for the Executive Committee, under the direction of the Board of Directors, to elect all members of the headquarters staff. Is this procedure in harmony with the Bylaws?

Answer, Question 2: Under the Charter and Bylaws, the Board of Directors have, as in all corporations, the general control of the work of the Association, and the Executive Committee of the Association, under the Bylaws, represents and acts for the Board of Directors in the interval between its meetings, and I am of the opinion, therefore, that it is in consonance with the laws of the Association, for the Executive Committee to elect all members of the headquarters staff.

Question 3: The Board of Trustees are clearly responsible under the Charter and Bylaws for the care of the permanent fund. How far does this responsibility go over into the custody of the current funds? The Board of Trustees have decided on the trust company to invest and care for the permanent fund. Is it the right of the Board of Trustees to choose the bank or trust company for the handling of the current funds or is that the responsibility of the Executive Committee and the Board of Directors? There is now common agreement on matters of this kind but we wish to know just who has the legal responsibility.

Answer, Question 3: The current funds of the Association are, I take it, all funds except the "Permanent Fund" and these current funds, until such part of them are converted into the "Permanent Fund," are, under provision of Section seven (7) of the Charter, in the hands of the Treasurer of the Association, and to be paid out, under Article three (3) of the Bylaws, only upon the order of the Board of Trustees, and I am, therefore, of the opinion that the responsibility for the handling of the current funds of the Association rests also with the Board of Trustees and not with the Board of Directors or Executive Committee.

Question 4: The present headquarters building was purchased by the Board of Trustees and paid for out of the permanent fund, looking upon the transaction as an investment of the permanent fund. The Association pays rent for the use of the building and these payments in rent are treated as income from the amount invested. Now we are arranging to construct an addition to the building and to look upon this again as an investment of the permanent fund. The Association would pay a rental which, like the other, would be considered as income in the permanent fund. We have paid out for the present building and grounds about $153,000. The new costs would add about $250,000. Is this procedure in full harmony with the Charter and Bylaws?

Answer, Question 4: I am of the opinion that the expenditure from the "Permanent Fund" for the acquisition of additional property for the expanding activities of the Association, the latter to pay a reasonable rental therefor, would be in the nature of a quasi investment and impliedly, if not directly, authorized by the provisions of Section seven (7) of the Charter.

Question 5: Of course, whether necessary or not, the question of the investment and building will be submitted to the Representative Assembly, but we would like to know whether the Bylaws would permit the Board of Trustees to take action on their own responsibility. What is the general practise of corporations similarly organized on such matters?

Answer, Question 5: The National Education Association is what is denominated in the law as an eleemosynary institution, whose purpose and object is something other than profit or gain, and the powers of such a corporation are, as a general rule, limited strictly by its Charter and Bylaws. Section seven (7) of the Charter points out the manner and means by which any part of the "Permanent Fund" of the Association is to be expended and does thereby preclude any other made than that therein specified, but viewing the proposed purchase of additional property for the headquarters of the Association as an investment on which the Association would receive a fair return, I am of the opinion that the Trustees could, on their own responsibility, proceed in the matter of the said proposed acquisition of property.

Question 6: Observe the provision in the Charter for turning current funds above a certain figure into the "Permanent Fund." May we, under these provisions, take into account the reasonable expenditures for next year and deduct that from the annual balance in getting at the amount to be turned into the "Permanent Fund"? Is this balance which is to apply on next year's expenditures, in the custody of the Executive Committee and Board of Directors or is it to be in the custody of the Board of Trustees? We have put this balance on interest at four percent for three or six months at a time. Is that in harmony with the Bylaws? Is there any reason why such an investment, provided it represents the balance on hand and provided it does not exceed the probable expenditures of the following year, cannot be made for an entire year? Could we designate this as a "Saving Fund" or any such name as we wish?

Answer, Question 6: From a careful consideration of Section seven (7) of the Charter, I am of the opinion that an affirmative answer can be given to the queries to the foregoing question provided the said current funds or the "Savings Fund" should you desire so to designate it, be invested in liquid securities, that is, readily convertible into cash. I would say further that in my opinion the custody of the current funds would be vested in the Board of Trustees and not in the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee.

Question 7: Is the Budget Committee which is provided for in the Bylaws independent of the Board of Trustees? Is it independent of the Executive Committee, that is, is this committee exclusively under the authority of the Board of Directors?

Answer, Question 7: The Bylaws, Article three (3), Section four (4), provide for the appointment by the Board of Directors at its annual meeting of "a Budget Committee for the ensuing year whose duty it shall be to prepare and present a budget to the Board of Directors at its next meeting." I am of the opinion that the Budget Committee being the creature, if I may use the expression, of the Board of Directors and apparently accountable to it alone, is independent of the Board of Trustees and also the Executive Committee—the power to appoint the Budget Committee being, in my opinion, properly vested in the Board of Directors as the general controlling body of the Association in consonance with general principles of corporation law.

Question 8: After an appropriation has been made to a department, does the Executive Committee of the department have the right to order payment of bills, and is it necessary for the officers of the Association to honor these orders? If the Association makes an appropriation to a department for specific purposes, can such funds be used legally for other purposes?

Answer, Question 8: The departments of the Association were created by the Charter itself in Section two (2) and it was the evident intent of the original incorporators that they should constitute an active factor contributing to the success of the Association. Section five (5), Article five (5) of the Bylaws states that the officers of each department shall consist of a President, a Vice-president, a Secretary, and such other officers as may be deemed necessary by the department. From the foregoing, I am of the opinion that it is the intent and meaning of the Charter and Bylaws of the Association that the departments be vested with sufficient authority to properly perform their functions as an integral part of the Association, and that, therefore, in view of the foregoing that when an appropriation has been made to a department the Executive Committee of such department has the right to order payment of bills, and that it is necessary for the Officers of the Association to honor the orders. And, I am further of the opinion, that if the Association, makes an appropriation to a department for a specific purpose, such funds cannot be legally used for other purposes, applying the maxim of law that *expressio unius est exclusio alterius,* that is, the expression of one thing is the exclusion of all others.

Respectfully submitted,

C. ALBERT WHITE.

The report of the trust officer was then read as follows:

> "We hand you herewith annual account of Continental Trust Company, Trustee of the National Education Association, due May 31, 1929. You will note that we have transferred from the Income Account, Permanent Fund, an over-balance of $3372.12 to the regular account of the National Education Association. You will also note that there is a balance of cash in the principal sum of $28,544.04.
>
> "Will you kindly advise us how you wish this money invested?"

The *Chair* then gave a record of the investments of $31,916.36 as follows:

> State of Arkansas 5% due serially 1931-1945, AAA bonds, net earnings 4.75, and the action was approved upon the motion of *Mr. Saunders.* Seconded by *Miss Wofford.*

The next matter as suggested by the *Chair* was the building option.

Mr. Saunders then moved and *Miss Wofford* seconded the motion that the Board of Trustees purchase the two lots under option of purchase, adjoining the present administration building on the basis of the offer made, or $40,000, or as much thereunder as the Committee could buy them for. Motion carried.

Mr. Lamkin then moved and it was seconded by *Mr. Saunders* that the architect be instructed to proceed with the plans for a seven-story building, each floor to be on the same floor level with the present building. *Mr. Saunders* asked to whom he should report the work of the committee on a president's jewel and after discussion, it was decided that he should take the matter up with the Board of Directors. On motion of *Mr. Lamkin,* seconded by *Mr. Saunders,* the meeting adjourned to meet at the conclusion of the meeting of the Board of Directors.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*

Friday, June 28, 1929—Adjourned Meeting

An adjourned meeting of the Board of Trustees was called to order by *Chairman Siders* in the President's Suite, Ansley Hotel, at 5:30 p. m., following the conclusion of the meeting of the Board of Directors. There were present: *Walter R. Siders,* Chairman, and *Uel W. Lamkin* and *Kate V. Wofford.*

The *Chair* announced that since the matter of proceeding with the building had now been approved by the Board of Directors, the Board of Trustees may now take final action and enter into a contract with *Mr. Cooper* and complete negotiations.

It was moved by *Mr. Lamkin,* seconded by *Miss Wofford,* that the Board of Trustees proceed with arriving at a contract with the Frank Irving Cooper Corporation of Boston, Massachusetts, as architect for the new building. Motion carried.

Here followed discussion of the printed form of architect's agreement, to which the *Chair* raised numerous objections as to certain clauses contained in the printed form.

After a discussion of the contract submitted, clause by clause, it was moved by *Mr. Lamkin,* seconded by *Miss Wofford,* that the Chairman of the Board of Trustees enter into a contract in conformity with the points raised and decided upon in the discussion, with the Frank Irving Cooper Corporation for the erection of the new building. Motion carried.

The *Chair* announced he was wiring an offer of $35,000 for the two lots, being $5,000 less than the price asked.

It was moved by *Mr. Lamkin,* seconded by *Miss Wofford,* that the minutes of the Minneapolis and Cleveland meetings be approved. Motion carried.

Then followed a general discussion of the blue prints and plans as tentatively submitted by the architect.

Upon motion duly made and seconded, the meeting adjourned to meet following the conclusion of the General Session of the evening.

Adjourned meeting, evening, June 28, 1929, informal discussion. No action taken.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*

Thursday, July 4, 1929

The Board of Trustees met immediately following the last meeting of the Board of Directors and reorganized by electing *W. R. Siders,* Chairman and *Kate V. Wofford,* Secretary. Upon motion of *Mr. Saunders,* seconded by *Miss Wofford,* the meeting was adjourned.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*

Washington, D. C., Tuesday, August 27, 1929

The Board of Trustees met at Association headquarters, Washington, D. C., at 9 a. m., August 27, 1929. The following members were present: *Walter R. Siders,* Chairman, *Uel W. Lamkin, Joseph H. Saunders,* and *Kate V. Wofford.*

The matter of the new heating plant was discussed and explained by the Heating Engineer, *Mr. Daniels.* After a full discussion of the Engineer's report, *Mr. Lamkin* moved that the Engineer rewrite the specifications asking for bids on two or more boilers, burners, etc. The motion was seconded by *Miss Wofford.* Carried. *Mr. Daniels* agreed to call for bids by Saturday noon, September 1. The following resolution was adopted:

> "The Permanent Fund shall be invested in City, State, County, School and United States Bonds."

It was moved by *Mr. Lamkin* that the Board of Trustees instruct the Secretary of the Association to take fifteen consecutive days away from the office before the first day of January, during which time he is not to combine his vacation with business. Any failure of the Secretary to carry out this instruction of the Board will result in the forfeiture of one-half of a month's salary. The motion was seconded by *Miss Wofford.* Carried.

The question of the painting of the corridors in the Administration Building was then considered and after a full discussion, it was moved by *Mr. Saunders* and seconded by *Mr. Lamkin* that the corridors be painted, the cost not to exceed $250; that the portico, the sign, and the woodwork of four windows on second floor also be painted, the work not to exceed $150. The question of the basement was also discussed and *Mr. Lamkin* made the following motion:

> "That it is the opinion of the Board of Trustees that the basement should be made usable for the mimeograph department, if the new heating plant permits."

Seconded by *Mr. Saunders.* Carried.

The Board then inspected the lots at the back of the property, at 1201 Sixteenth Street. After inspection, *Mr. Lamkin* moved that *Mr. Allan* be instructed to get the opinion of architects in regard to the Sixteenth Street entrance, to investigate building restrictions of all kinds, and to report to the trustees by letter.

Bills were then approved for the remodeling of fourth floor of the building and were ordered paid:

Summary of Expenses for Remodeling of Fourth Floor

Tounis F. Collier	Lumber, Hardware, Skylight and labor for carpenters, roofers, plasterers, plumbers and for hauling	$611.13
Washington Woodworking Company	Cabinet work for partition, stock cabinet, and fan bracket	343.50
H. L. Gordon	Painting	295.00
Thomas Electric Company	Electrical work	77.63
W. B. Moses & Sons	Linoleum	326.39
	Total	$1653.65

Expenses for Repair of Doors and Vestibule

Washington Woodworking Company	Repair of doors	$171.00
H. L. Gordon	Cleaning and Painting	35.00
	Total	$206.00

The Board recessed to meet at the call of the *Chairman.*

Walter R. Siders, *Chairman*
Kate V. Wofford, *Secretary*

Washington, D. C., Saturday, September 7, 1929

The Board of Trustees met at Association headquarters, Washington, D. C., on September 7, 1929 at 9 a. m., with the following present: *Walter R. Siders,* Chairman, *Joseph H. Saunders, Kate V. Wofford,* Trustees and *Mr. Crabtree,* Secretary. *Mr. Cooper,* architect for the proposed new building was present and presented the blue prints, prepared to date. The following decisions were reached in regard to the blue prints and *Mr. Cooper* was asked to abide by them.

Basement Floor

Utilize all ground area possible extending rear wall westward to the limit allowed in the building code. Two additional toilets.

First Floor

Remove all partitions possible on all floors. Clear hall of stairway, move elevators making freight and passenger elevators near each other.

Second Floor

More elevation as on first floor.

Third Floor

Remove partitions in Division of Publications. Use linoleum on all floors throughout including auditorium, except first floor corridor. Steel sash to be used in the rear. Stairs of steel with linoleum tread materials to be used in new building, similar to those in present building. Conduits for telephone system. Automatic sprinkler in basement where there is fire hazard. One Western Union clock and a system of gongs for each floor.

Mr. Crabtree was asked to investigate the possibility of broadcasting and if such arrangements can be made that the architect be asked to build the proper room.

The Board authorized *Mr. Allan* to take steps to unite our lots into one lot on the district plat. The following resolution was introduced and unanimously adopted:

> "*Mr. Saunders* moved that all resolutions for borrowing money be rescinded and that *Walter R. Siders,* Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and *J. W. Crabtree,* Secretary, N. E. A., be authorized to borrow for uses and purposes of the said Association from the Continental Trust Company, of Washington, D. C., the sum of $20,000 or as much thereof as may be needed, and execute and deliver to the Trust Company the necessary papers."

A bill for professional services by *Mr. White,* local attorney, was approved and ordered paid.

STATEMENT OF SETTLEMENT ON PURCHASE OF TUCKERMAN PROPERTY

Price of Property		$37,500.00
Expenses of Purchase:		
Certificate of Title	$63.00	
Tax Certificate	1.00	
Preparing Deed	10.00	
Recording Deed	1.10	
Settlement Fee	18.50	
		93.60
Gross Price		$37,593.60
Less taxes paid by Tuckerman from 7/1/29 to 9/3/29 @ $430.62[1]		75.60
		$37,518.00
By check of Continental Trust Company		$36,600.00
By deposit 7/6/29		1,000.00
		$37,600.00
Check to balance from Title Co.		82.00
		$37,518.00
A. Albert White, Attorney Fees		150.00
		$37,668.00

[1] Amount of taxes paid by Tuckerman in property settlement is later payable to District of Columbia by N. E. A.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*

Washington, D. C., Monday, October 14, 1929

The Board of Trustees met at the Association headquarters, Washington, D. C., on October 14 at 9 a. m. with the following members present: *Walter R. Siders*, Chairman, *E. Ruth Pyrtle, Joseph H. Saunders,* and *Kate V. Wofford. Mr. Frank I. Cooper,* Architect, was also present to present the final plans of the building.

The first matter considered was a letter from *Mr. Davidson* of the Technical High School of Cincinnati criticizing the plans for the proposed building of the N. E. A. and suggesting changes in order that the building might be more harmonious and beautiful. After a full discussion of the criticisms *Mr. Saunders* moved and *Miss Pyrtle* seconded the motion that the Secretary be instructed to write to *Mr. Davidson* and explain to him the practical reasons why his suggested improvements could not be carried out.

Mr. Cooper, architect, then presented his plans floor by floor, and discussion resulted in a motion by *Mr. Saunders,* seconded by *Miss Wofford,* that plans for pipes be included tentatively in the blue prints and that a toilet be put on the second floor. *Mr. Urdahl* then presented plans for the heating plant of the proposed new building.

Mr. Saunders moved, seconded by *Miss Pyrtle,* that the Board of Trustees approve the blue prints as submitted by *Mr. Cooper* as of October 14 with two changes, that of a toilet on the second floor, and risers for basins on each floor. Carried.

Miss Wofford moved, seconded by *Miss Pyrtle,* that a building committee, composed of *Mr. Siders, Mr. Crabtree, and Mr. Saunders* be appointed, the committee to be authorized to work out specifications with the architect and to obtain bids on the same. Carried.

Mr. Siders made a report on finances, informing the Board that he had taken up the matter of a loan with the different life insurance companies and that the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company was the only company that had given him any encouragement on a building financed as the proposed building will be and that their loan would not exceed $275,000.

Miss Pyrtle moved, seconded by *Miss Wofford,* that the World Federation of Education Associations be invited to maintain headquarters at 1201 Sixteenth Street, the headquarters of the N. E. A., and that the N. E. A. provide space for said organization, and also such immediate assistance as it needs to get work started.

Mr. Siders also reported on a voucher form that he had ordered to be prepared for the permanent fund. This action was approved by the Board.

There being no further business the Board adjourned to meet at the call of the Chairman.

Walter R. Siders, *Chairman*
Kate V. Wofford, *Secretary*

Washington, D. C., Saturday, December 7, 1929

The Building Committee of the Board of Trustees met Saturday, December 7, 1929, at the headquarters building, Washington, D. C.

Those present were: *Walter R. Siders,* chairman, *Joseph H. Saunders, J. W. Crabtree, Frank Irving Cooper,* architect, and *Thomas H. Urdahl,* assistant architect.

The *Chairman* of the committee after making a few general remarks requested *Mr. Watson,* of the Haggeman & Harris Company of New York, who was also present, to mention his proposition to the committee. *Mr. Watson* then discussed the merits of the plan to build on a percentage basis rather than to let the contract on bids. He stated that his company would apply for the contract if that plan were adopted.

After *Mr. Watson* had explained fully and after answering questions, he took his leave. The committee then gave further consideration to the question. It was the consensus of opinion that it would be wiser as a policy to submit the plans for bids and to award the contract on that basis of bids taking into account the ability of the contractor to make good.

The committee then discussed in a general way, the question of the date on which the bids should be opened, who should be present to open them, the methods of deciding on bids, whether the building committee or the board of trustees should make the decision, and much time was given to these questions.

A motion was then made to adjourn for lunch. Carried.

The meeting was again called to order at 2 p. m. The discussion on the opening of bids was continued.

A motion was made and seconded to arrange for opening bids at 11:30 oclock on January 11, all bids to be submitted by 4:30 p. m., January 10, 1930. Carried. The *Chairman* stated that the *Secretary* would open the bids and list them in the presence of members of the building committee or as many as could be present and in the presence of any bidders who might desire to be present.

After discussing the question of a date for the meeting of the Board of Trustees, the *Secretary* was instructed to ask members as to the dates they would prefer between January 10 and January 18, 1930. After receiving replies the *Chairman* would issue the call for the meeting.

The architect was authorized to prepare a form of contract based on the plan of the National Building Exchange, adapting the same to the conditions in Washington and to the needs of the Association. He was requested to include in the statement to bidders the right to reject any or all bids.

The *Secretary* was authorized to look up available places for rent and report at the meeting on January 11.

The discussion then turned to the matter of financing the building. It was stated that there would be no difficulty in securing funds by mortgaging the building and grounds. The *Chairman* thought no decision could be reached until after bids are received. A number of firms were mentioned that were willing to make loans.

The names of about twenty firms asking for the opportunity of bidding were turned over to the architect. He was directed to correspond with them, and to supply those who had met conditions with plans and complete information and to give all time for getting in their bids by January 11, 1930.

On motion the committee adjourned to meet at N. E. A. headquarters January 11.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*

Washington, D. C., Monday, January 13, 1930

CALL FOR MEETING

To the Members of the Board of Trustees
National Education Association of the United States:

You are hereby notified that there will be a meeting of the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association of the United States at 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., at 9 a. m., January 13, 1930, for the transaction of any and all business consistent with the following purposes:

1. To consider bids for the erection and completion of the addition to the present building in accordance with the plans and specifications of the Frank I. Cooper Corporation of Boston, Massachusetts, said present building being located at 16th and M Streets, N. W., Washington, D. C.

2. To award and to enter into a contract for the erection of the aforesaid addition, or to reject all bids and call for new bids with plans and specifications either modified or unmodified, or to postpone definitely or indefinitely the building of the aforesaid addition.

3. To determine what amount of the Permanent Fund of the Association shall be invested in the proposed addition.

4. To arrange for such loan or loans as may be necessary to finance the building of the aforesaid addition including the furnishing of the same, and to take any and all action which may be necessary for the transaction of that business.

5. Pay the Frank I. Cooper Corporation such amount for services as will then be due under their contract for services rendered to date of above called meeting; also, to pay or dispose of any other claims in connection with the above named addition.

6. To transact any other business in connection with the investment of the Permanent Fund, or pertaining to the insurance, repair or alteration of properties in which said fund is now invested.

WALTER R. SIDERS,
Chairman of the Board of Trustees
of the National Education Association of the United States.

At a regular called meeting of the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association of the United States held at the headquarters of the said Association on January 13, 1930, at 9:30 a. m., the following members were present: *E. Ruth Pyrtle, Joseph H. Saunders* and *W. R. Siders,* Chairman of the Board. *Joseph M. Gwinn* and *Kate V. Wofford* were unavoidably absent. All members of the Executive Committee were present on invitation and participated in the deliberations. Architects *Stebbins* and *Urdahl* were also present.

The Chairman, *Mr. Siders,* explained that the meeting had been called to consider all questions connected with the arrangements for constructing the new headquarters building. He outlined the work which had been done by the Building Committee under the instruction of the Board of Trustees. He presented a list of the bids which had been opened by the Building Committee, Saturday, January 11, 1930, at 11 a. m.

On motion of *Miss Pyrtle,* seconded by *Mr. Saunders,* the Board of Trustees were authorized and directed to negotiate for and to obtain a loan not exceeding $200,000 for three years at six percent per annum on all the real estate of the corporation in the city of Washington, D. C., for the purpose of the erection and completion of the new building for the corporation, and the said trustees of the Association were further authorized to sign and to execute the necessary promissory note or notes for the before mentioned sum and the President of the Association was authorized and directed to sign on behalf of the corporation the deed of trust on the said real estate of the corporation for the purpose of securing the payment of the said promissory note or notes and to authorize an attorney in fact to acknowledge the said deed of trust as the act and deed of the corporation and to do all other things necessary in the premises to erect and to complete the said building.

This action was taken in harmony with the authority granted by the active members at Milwaukee, Wisconsin, July 4, 1919, who passed by unanimous vote the following resolution: "The Board of Trustees is authorized to invest of the Permanent Fund in Washington property to be used for rental purposes and for the national headquarters of the Association." Before this resolution was presented to the active membership, the resolution was unanimously adopted by the Executive Committee on June 29, and by the Board of Directors on June 30, 1919.

A letter was read from the Underwriters Association concerning openings between the old building and the proposed new building. A motion was passed instructing *Mr. Stebbins* to see the officers of the Underwriters Association and determine what changes if any, would need to be made in the plans.

A recess was taken at 10:45 a. m. for those attending the meeting to call on *President Hoover* with *Miss Pyrtle* who extended to the President an invitation to deliver the Fourth of July address at the Columbus convention. The meeting reconvened at 11:30 a. m. The *Chairman* explained his efforts to arrange for securing the loan for the new building. After discussing the question in general a recess was taken at 12:30 p. m. for lunch.

The session reconvened at 1:30 p. m. with the same members attending as during the forenoon session.

A motion was then made by *Mr. Saunders,* seconded by *Miss Pyrtle,* that the bids of all bidders listed by the building committee be considered by the Board of Trustees in selecting the builder and in awarding the contract. Carried.

Contractor	*Complete Building*
Arthur L. Smith Company	$305,600.00
Charles H. Tompkins Company	313,950.00
John W. Duff, Boston	387,800.00
George E. Wyne	303,000.00
De Sibour Construction Company	310,000.00
Schneider-Spleidt	304,900.00
Skinker & Garrett	317,000.00
M. A. Long Company	334,000.00

After comparing the bids it was found that *George E. Wyne's* bid was the lowest. A motion was made by *Mr. Saunders,* seconded by *Miss Pyrtle,* to award *Mr. George E. Wyne* the contract on the basis of the bid, subject to a satisfactory adjustment between himself, the architect, and building committee, of all items in the bid and other necessary changes. The bids were to include items C. and J. Carried by a unanimous vote.

> *Item C*: Remove all the valves on the cast iron radiators in the present building and have installed direct control valves the same as in the new building, $1,200.00
>
> *Alternate Proposal J*: If water is encountered when excavations are being made, and in such quantity as to require waterproofing, the contractor agrees on notice from the architect to perform such waterproofing by the membrane method, using three thicknesses of 15 lb. asphalt saturated waterproofing felt, of accepted make, all felt shall be thoroughly mopped under, between, and over layers with a heavy coating of hot asphalt, all surfaces being dry before membrane is applied. The waterproofing shall extend up to eighteen inches above water line and extend unbroken under all interior walls and columns; waterproofing shall be done by parties expert in this line of work. Contractor shall put down over the waterproofing and extend up on the walls, a sufficient body of concrete or brickwork necessary to hold the waterproofing against water pressure. Contractor to give a special bond of five thousand ($5000.00) dollars that his waterproofing shall remain tight for a period of five years.
>
> If above waterproofing and weighting against water pressure is required the undersigned will perform the same for the sum of $3000.00.

A motion was made by *Mr. Saunders,* seconded by *Miss Pyrtle,* to return all certified checks immediately, except those of *George E. Wyne, Schneider-Spleidt Company,* and *C. H. Tompkins,* and the others except that of the successful bidder as soon as the contract is signed. Carried.

A motion was passed to require the contractor to give a surety bond satisfactory to the building committee covering fifty percent of the contract price for the building.

A motion was passed authorizing the payment of *Architect Cooper's* bill as provided in his contract. It was explained that the *Chairman* and *Secretary* of the Trustees had the authority to sign the orders for payment.

The *Chairman* stated that the building committee had been authorized to rent the extra space for work and offices made necessary while the new building is being constructed. A motion was passed authorizing the building committee to act on the recommendations of the *Secretary.*

A motion was made by *Mr. Saunders,* seconded by *Miss Pyrtle,* thanking the members of the Executive Committee for accepting the invitation to attend the meeting and for their part in the consideration of the important questions connected with the new building. Carried.

A motion was passed authorizing *Miss Pyrtle,* the president, to arrange for exercises in connection with the laying of the corner stone, at whatever time she sees fit.

Kate V. Wofford, a member of the Board of Trustees, was absent due to a painful accident as a result of a fall. *Trustee Gwinn* sent his proxy.

A motion was made to adjourn subject to the call of the *Chairman.* Seconded. Carried.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary Pro Tempore.*

Atlantic City, N. J., February 24, 1930

Monday, February 24, 1930

The Board of Trustees met at the Shelburne Hotel, Atlantic City, on February 24, 1930, at 2 p. m., with the following members present: *Walter R. Siders,* Chairman, *E. Ruth Pyrtle, J. M. Gwinn, Kate V. Wofford,* and *Joseph H. Saunders.*

The following members of the Executive Committee were also present by invitation: *H. L. Smith, J. W. Crabtree,* Secretary.

FINANCING THE NEW BUILDING

Mr. Crabtree reported that on February 11, 1930, there were 3320 life members making a building fund of cash and notes receivable of $295,665.

Chairman Siders reported: Cash and securities available, $186,000.00; contract with George E. Wyne demands $305,700.00; architect's fee and incidentals make estimated cost $325,000.00.

The *Chairman* suggested that we use $125,000 of our own funds, and borrow $200,000.

After extended discussion the Board adjourned to meet to vote on February 25, 1930, at 2 p. m., at the same place.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary.*

Tuesday, February 25, 1930

A meeting of the Board of Trustees of the N. E. A. was held at 2 p. m. in Room 300, Shelburne Hotel, Atlantic City, N. J., with the following members present: *Walter R. Siders,* Chairman, *E. Ruth Pyrtle, J. M. Gwinn, Kate V. Wofford,* and *Joseph H. Saunders.* The following members of the Executive Committee were also present: *Mr. Reynolds, Mr. Smith,* and *Mr. Lamkin. Mr. Cooper,* architect, and *Secretary Crabtree* were also present.

Chairman Siders gave a resumé of proceedings of the meeting of the Board of Trustees on February 24 regarding the erection of the new building. After full discussion of proper procedure of financing the new building, the following resolution was unanimously adopted to be reported to the Board of Directors for their action:

RESOLUTION TO BORROW $200,000

> "*RESOLVED,* that for the purpose of the erection and completion of a building for the accommodation of offices of this Association and for rental purposes, a loan of two hundred thousand dollars ($200,000) be obtained, and in the

negotiation of said loan, such notes for such amounts payable at such time or times and with such rate of interest and upon such terms and conditions as may be agreed upon, shall be issued by and in the name of this corporation, under signature of its President, attested by its Secretary and its corporate seal; and to secure the payment of the principal of and the interest on said notes, the said President is hereby authorized to execute and deliver in the name of this corporation a Deed of Trust in the usual form upon the following described property owned by this corporation and situated in the City of Washington, D. C., namely: Lots "A" and "B" in Susan M. Watson's subdivision of lots in square one hundred and ninety-six (196) as per plat recorded in Liber R. W. folio 65 of the Records of the Office of the Surveyor of the District of Columbia. Also lot twenty-five (25) in the subdivision made by the National Safe Deposit Savings and Trust Company, of lots in square one hundred and ninety-six (196), as per plat recorded in Liber No. 31, folio 108 of the aforesaid Surveyor's Office Records. Also parts of original lots five (5) and six (6) in square one hundred and ninety-six (196), described as follows: Beginning for the same on M Street at a point distant 42 feet west from the southeast corner of lot 5, and running thence west along said street, 30 feet; thence north 106 feet 10 inches to the rear line of said lots; thence east along said rear line, 30 feet; thence south 106 feet 10 inches to the place of beginning.

"And the said President and Secretary of this corporation are also hereby authorized and directed to do and perform all acts necessary to effect the purpose of this resolution."

The following resolution was unanimously adopted to be reported to the Board of Directors for their action:

RESOLUTION TO PLEDGE SECURITIES

"RESOLVED, that *E. Ruth Pyrtle,* President, and *J. W. Crabtree,* Secretary, be authorized to negotiate a loan of one hundred twenty-five thousand ($125,000) dollars or as much thereof as may be necessary from the Commercial National Bank of Washington upon terms and conditions to be mutually agreed upon; and the said *E. Ruth Pyrtle* and *J. W. Crabtree* were further authorized and directed to do all acts and things and execute any and all papers in their judgment necessary or desirable to consummate the loan and to pledge as collateral security for the repayment of the said loan any of the investments now owned by the Association and held in its fund known as the "Permanent Fund of the National Education Association"; and

IT WAS FURTHER RESOLVED and ordered by the said Board of Directors that the income from the "Permanent Fund of the National Education Association," together with all dues paid by the members of the Association, after provision has been made for the annual budgets of the Association, be pledged also for the repayment of the aforesaid loan and the interest thereon until said loan, with interest has been liquidated."

The *Chairman* reported for the Building Committee that the best terms obtainable for a building loan are those of the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, which are as follows:

> Will lend $200,000 at 6% for three years with $10,000 annually to be paid by us upon principal and with the privilege of paying $1,000 or multiple thereof at interest dates, provided that not more than $25,000 additional is paid in any one calendar year, the loan to be secured by a first trust upon the property at 16th and M Streets, Washington, D. C. The Trustees shall give the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company a corporation bond of $300,000 guaranteeing

> the completion of the building within the specified period, free of mechanics liens. Interest to be paid only upon money advanced us.
>
> *February 11, 1930.* The Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company will accept the 50% construction bond to be given by contractor in lieu of a former demand of 100% construction bond provided the N. E. A. will first invest its $125,000 in the building. After which the said company will advance the amount of the loan monthly in multiples of $500 upon the architect's certificate certifying that the amount to be advanced by the contractor is fully represented by labor, and material in position.

On a motion by *Mr. Gwinn,* seconded by *Miss Pyrtle,* and by a unanimous vote the loan from the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company was authorized.

The *Chairman* reported that the Continental Trust Company had been bought by the Commercial National Bank. *Mr. Gwinn* moved, seconded by *Miss Wofford,* that the *Chairman* of the Board and *Secretary Crabtree,* be authorized to enter into agreements with the Commercial National Bank. There being no further business the Board adjourned subject to call of the *Chairman.*

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary.*

Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle, Principal
Bancroft School
Lincoln, Nebraska

April 7, 1930

Dear Miss Pyrtle:

Will you please give me your vote on the following questions:

1. We have been charging the N. E. A. $15,000 per year rental on the property occupied at Sixteenth and M Streets. Now, that we have torn down part of those buildings and they are required to pay $245 per month rent, is it not reasonable that we should authorize the deduction of $245 per month from the amount they have been paying?
2. The payment to E. Quincy Smith, Inc., Washington, D. C. as Commission for obtaining the $200,000 loan from the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, the commission being 2% on the first $100,000 and ½% on the second $100,000, making a total of $3500 to him.
3. Expenses in connection with certificates of title, transfer necessitated by issuing a mortgage to the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company for the $200,000 loan, the bill being as follows:

Certificate of Title	$232.50
Tax Certificate	1.00
Preparing Trust	5.00
Recording Trust	5.45
Notary Fee	1.00
Total	$244.95

4. Bill of C. Albert White, Attorney for the Association. Mr. White presented a bill for $1500 to which I objected. He reduced the bill to $1000 which I think is more than he should charge us, but I do not know how we can bring him to reduce the same.
   The fee is not unusual in the commercial field for Mr. White did give us much of his time. I think he might make some further concessions to our being an educational institution. If he will not, what is your attitude towards the payment of this bill?

Since these bills are pending and creditors are urging payment, I hope to have your vote soon.

Sincerely yours,

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman Board of Trustees.*

VOTE OF THE TRUSTEES:

The Trustees voted unanimously in favor of Items 1, 2, 3. Item 4 was left to the Chairman for adjustment.

Mr. White accepted $500 in full payment.

Washington, D. C., Monday, May 5, 1930

The Building Committee, *Dr. Walter R. Siders, Mr. J. W. Crabtree,* and *Mr. Joseph H. Saunders,* met in conference with *Mr. George E. Wyne, Mr. T. H. Urdahl, Mr. Shrider,* and *Mr. Frank Irving Cooper,* architect.

It was agreed that both interior elevators be Otis and as per specifications and that the sidewalk elevator be changed to electric drive with credit to the Board of Trustees of not less than one thousand dollars ($1000), elevator and credit to be approved by the architect.

It was agreed that *Mr. Cooper,* the architect, is authorized to order the builder to proceed when changes are demanded by the District Inspectors in plans provided the sum total of such changes does not exceed in cost the sum of three thousand dollars ($3000).

JOSEPH H. SAUNDERS,
Secretary, Pro Tem.

Columbus, Ohio, June 28-July 1, 1930

Saturday, June 28, 1930

The meeting of the Board of Trustees was called to order by Walter R. Siders, Chairman of the Board, at 8 p. m., in the President's Suite, Deshler-Wallick Hotel, Columbus, Ohio. Trustees present: *Walter R. Siders,* Chairman, *Kate V. Wofford, Joseph H. Saunders, J. M. Gwinn* and *President E. Ruth Pyrtle. Mr. Uel W. Lamkin* of the Executive Committee and *Secretary J. W. Crabtree* were also present.

The Chair: I would like to make a statement to the Trustees in regard to two matters.

There is extant a Minute Book, printed by *Irwin Shephard,* and it goes back to 1894 when *Dr. Butler* was Secretary. You may remember we had copies made that we might have a record. We have another Minute Book that begins with 1917, when *Mr. Crabtree* became Secretary and we moved down here. I have collected all the minutes and I am getting the recent ones written into a new book. The entire file will be in the hands of your *Secretary, Mr. Crabtree,* for anyone's inspection.

The *Chair* made a detailed statement to the Board, touching on the resolution adopted at the Atlantic City meeting that the Board was to finance the new building by borrowing $200,000 and by using $125,000 of the Association's money; that in view of the bond market, it had been deemed wiser to borrow certain moneys than to part with the bulk of the securities owned by the Association at a loss, and pay the difference in interest necessary on such borrowings between six percent and four, four and a half, or five percent which the securities were earning.

The *Chairman* asked for a resolution stating specifically who is authorized to sell the securities of the Permanent Fund to realize the money for the building.

It was moved by *Mr. Gwinn* that the *Chairman* of the Board of Trustees, together with *Trustee Saunders,* and *Secretary Crabtree* of the National Education Association be authorized to sell such bonds as they deemed advisable to sell, not to exceed the sum of $125,000, for the purpose of securing funds to apply on the erection of the new addition to the headquarters building. Seconded by *Miss Wofford.* The motion was put to a vote and carried.

Mr. Saunders: Mr. Crabtree, is there going to be any surplus to be transferred to us this year?

Secretary Crabtree: There is a surplus, but the motion was passed to hold that surplus in the current funds. You have in mind turning over of funds. If the Budget Committee's report goes through, the only funds turned over will be the Life Membership funds, and there will be a considerable amount from that source to turn over.

It was suggested by *Mr. Saunders* that it would seem the wise procedure to turn over such surplus as was indicated in the Auditor's report to the Permanent Fund, to be applied toward the $125,000 obviating the necessity of borrowing at six percent, on securities already owned, or at least reducing the amount necessary to be borrowed by the amount of surplus available.

Secretary Crabtree: Now may I say that the plan of the Budget Committee, and it was intended to be adopted last year, is to add one-tenth of the amount received each year to the surplus. That is, they take this surplus and they add it. They get this cumulative effect, and in the course of time they would have $500,000 ahead, and then they would deal in cash after that. After ten years they would not base it on past income at all but use the cash that they had on hand. Now that question will come up in the Board of Directors and I can say this, that the Budget Committee is not agreed on that fully.

Considerable discussion followed as to the correct interpretation to be placed upon the language of Section 7 (7) of the Charter, and as to whether the authority for determining whether a surplus existed should lie with the Board of Directors or the Board of Trustees.

It was moved by *Mr. Gwinn,* seconded by *Mr. Saunders,* that the Chairman of the Board of Trustees be directed and authorized to secure from an attorney an interpretation of the meaning of the language from Section 7 (7) of the Charter reading as follows: "When practicable, the Board of Trustees shall invest, as a part of the Permanent Fund, all surplus funds exceeding $500 that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer, after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year, and providing for the fixed expenses and for all appropriations made by the Board of Directors for the ensuing year." On vote, the motion carried.

It was moved by *Miss Wofford,* seconded by *Mr. Gwinn,* that the Board of Trustees accept the Financial Report of the auditors and record it in the minutes of the Board and make it a part of their record. Carried.

The *Chair* then presented the matter of the report of the Trustees, calling attention to the various items therein contained. It was moved by *Mr. Gwinn,* seconded by *Mr. Saunders,* that the report as submitted be accepted and be made the report of the Board of Trustees. Motion carried.

After considerable informal discussion, there being no further business to come before the Board of Trustees, it was moved by *Mr. Gwinn,* seconded by *Mr. Saunders,* that the meeting adjourn subject to the call of the *Chair.* Motion carried, and the meeting adjourned at 10:35 p. m.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary.*

Columbus, Ohio, Tuesday, July 1, 1930

On call of *Mr. Siders,* Chairman of the Board of Trustees, the second meeting of the Board was called to order at 11:45 p. m., July 1, 1930, at the President's Suite, Deshler-Wallick Hotel, Columbus, Ohio.

The *Chair* reported the legal advice obtained by him pursuant to the direction of the Board of Trustees on the matters on which the Board desired an interpretation of the provision of the Charter and Bylaws, reading the opinion secured.

It was moved by *Mr. Saunders,* seconded by *Mr. Gwinn,* that the legal opinion received be made a part of the records of the Association and the *Chairman* be instructed to settle the account with the attorney to the best possible advantage to the Association. Motion carried.

The opinion is as follows:

EAGLESON & LAYLIN
COLUMBUS, OHIO

July 1, 1930.

Dr. Walter R. Siders,
Chairman, Board of Trustees,
National Educational Association,
Columbus, Ohio

Dear Sir:

You ask us to answer the following two questions, interpreting the last sentence of Section 7 of the Charter of the National Education Association:

1. On May 31, 1930, the end of the fiscal year, there existed a cash balance of $103,056.09, of which amount there is budgeted for next year's expenses $50,000. Current bills amount to $18,940.79 which leaves a net cash balance of $34,114.30. Is this last named sum available for the Permanent Fund under the provisions of this Charter and Bylaws?

2. Does the last sentence of Section 7 of the Charter require that there shall be built up a cash reserve sufficient to provide for the fixed expenses and all appropriations made by the Board of Directors for the ensuing year, or does the language of this above mentioned sentence make possible providing for the fixed expenses and all appropriations by using part cash on hand and anticipated income based on experience of past revenues?

The part of Section 7, to which you refer, is as follows:

> "When practicable, the Board of Trustees shall invest, as part of the Permanent Fund, all surplus funds exceeding $500 that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year, and providing for the fixed expenses and for all appropriations made by the Board of Directors for the ensuing year."

From your first question it appears that from the cash balance or surplus of $103,056.09 there will be appropriated $50,000 to be used, if necessary, to meet budget requirements during the current year; also that amount will be further reduced $16,940.79 in payment of current bills, leaving a net cash balance of $34,114.30. The question then is, under the language quoted, may this net cash balance be made part of the Permanent Fund or must it be held as a cash reserve, to be treated as operating income, to meet fixed expenses and operating costs of the Association during the current year or thereafter.

The provision that the Trustees shall invest, as part of the Permanent Fund, all surplus funds exceeding $500 that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer, etc., indicates rather clearly that the Association may anticipate income to meet budget requirements. That anticipation, of course, is to be based upon experience and a careful survey of the prospective year. The fact that said $50,000 is to be made available for operating expenses of the Association for the current year indicates that there may be some doubt in the minds of the Budget Committee as to whether the income for the current year will be sufficient to meet all expenses; all of which indicates a rather clear conception of good accounting and management.

We think the language above quoted fully justifies the transfer to the Permanent Fund of said sum of $34,114.30.

Assuming that the provision that a minimum of not less than $500 shall be kept as surplus fund or cash balance was written some years ago and before the Association assumed the magnificent proportions which it now enjoys, the question of establishing a practise of carrying a somewhat larger amount as a cash balance suggests itself in passing.

While the Bylaws of an association such as this do not rise to the degree of controlling corresponding charter provisions, they and official conduct pursuant thereto may be quite persuasive in the interpretation of the charter provisions. We think that is the case here. Section 4 of the Bylaws provides, among other things, that the Board of Directors

> "Shall appropriate from the *current funds of the year* the amounts of money ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting of the same for the work of all special committees of research, etc. . . . The Board of Directors shall appoint at its annual meeting, a budget committee for the ensuing year, whose duty it shall be to prepare and present a budget to the Board of Directors at its next meeting."

Again, there is the provision in Section 3 that the Treasurer

> "Shall receive from the Secretary and, under the direction of the Board of Trustees, shall hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall pay the same only upon the order of the Board of Trustees, shall notify the President of the Association and Chairman of the Board of Trustees whenever the surplus funds in his possession exceed $500, etc."

These provisions all indicate and harmonize with what we state as the correct interpretation of said Charter, Section 7. We find no provision elsewhere indicating the contrary.

What we have already said amounts to an answer to your second inquiry. From all of which we may but restate the conclusion that the language under consideration makes possible providing for the fixed expenses and all appropriations by using, if necessary, part cash on hand and the anticipated income for the payment of such expenses as they may be incurred and become due from time to time during the year. The experience of the Association as to the amount of revenues received in past years naturally influences in making up the budget for the ensuing year, and rightly so. We think it is but natural and in accord with good practise that an Association of this character and standing anticipate income to meet budget requirements, etc.

Very truly yours,

EAGLESON & LAYLIN.

It was moved by *Mr. Gwinn,* seconded by *Mr. Saunders,* that the surplus amount of $34,114.30 be placed in the Permanent Fund. Upon vote, motion carried.

There being no further business to come before the meeting at this time, upon motion duly made and seconded, the meeting adjourned at 12:10 a. m.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*

Columbus, Ohio, Friday, July 4, 1930

A regular meeting was called for the purpose of organization. Those present were: Trustees, *J. H. Saunders, W. A. Sutton,* and *W. R. Siders.*

Walter R. Siders was elected Chairman and *Kate V. Wofford* was elected Secretary for the ensuing year.

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary.*

REPORT OF THE AUDITORS

June 1, 1930

Secretary's Letter of Transmittal

WE ARE printing the auditor's report in full because: (1) It sets forth the transactions of the Association in complete form; and (2) the auditing company requires that any changes in the wording of reports, or any rearrangement of tables, or any explanations thrown into the text be submitted to it for approval.

To put the report in a more simple form would require time. It might not even be possible to prepare a plan much better than that of the auditors. Will it not mean more to members to see the report exactly as prepared by experts?

In this letter of transmittal, let us, however, make these few comments: (1) The statement on income and expenses takes into account unpaid bills, etc., as well as cash transactions. The surplus for the year is the excess in income over expenses. (2) The statement of the Assets and Liabilities shows that the Association is doing more than a half million dollar business. (3) Note that the treasurer's report covers only cash transactions.

The auditors, while making suggestions for improvement in handling accounts, express satisfaction with the way in which the Association handles its business.

Following the report of the auditors comes the report of the Board of Trustees prepared by Chairman Walter R. Siders. He gives in detail the steps taken in arranging for the new building and in its construction.

The report presented herewith shows another year of growth and prosperity in which members of the Association may well take honest pride.

J. W. CRABTREE,
Secretary.

PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & CO.

Accountants and Auditors

40 Exchange Place, New York, N. Y.

June 18, 1930.

Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle, President,
National Education Association of the United States,
Washington, D. C.

DEAR MADAM:

In accordance with your instructions, we have made an examination of the accounts of the National Education Association of the United States for the year ended May 31, 1930, and now submit our report thereon.

Our work embraced the examination, as hereinafter described, of the accounts relating to the assets and liabilities of the Association as at May 31, 1930, and a review of the income and expenses for the year then ended. In that connection and in order to satisfy ourselves regarding the general accuracy of the accounts, we made a series of tests relating to cash receipts and disbursements, and other matters of detail.

Income and Expenses

The excess of income over expenses for the year ended May 31, 1930, amounted to $39,497.36. The following is a condensed comparative statement of the income and expenses for the two years ended May 31, 1930 and 1929:

Condensed Comparative Statement of Income and Expenses

	Year ended May 31		Increase
Income	*1930*	*1929*	Decrease
Memberships from Secretary's Office	$184,545.59	$175,898.83	$8,646.76
N. E. A. Journal—Subscriptions and Advertising, Etc.	252,322.18	245,182.21	7,139.97
Sales of Proceedings	793.20	591.03	202.17
Sales of Special Reports	3,438.22	3,004.77	433.45
Commercial Exhibits	32,080.25	23,468.89	8,611.36
Research Bulletins	10,980.38	8,700.59	2,279.79
Honorariums	984.90	2,327.32	1,342.42
Rentals	2,187.50	2,070.00	117.50
Interest and Discount Earned	2,378.06	1,555.95	822.11
Cash Sales—Reports, Pamphlets, Etc.	1,798.65	820.20	978.45
Net Income from Permanent Fund Investments	20,835.22	13,308.81	7,526.41
Sundry Income	100.04	563.14	463.10
Sales of Dr. Harris' Book	....	4.22	4.22
	512,444.19	477,495.96	34,948.23

Expenses:			
Board of Trustees	$798.51	$613.69	$184.82
Board of Directors	8,347.00	7,821.49	525.51
Executive Committee	5,092.98	3,753.08	1,339.90
General Secretary's Office	27,587.30	26,361.71	1,225.59
General Headquarters Expenses	34,813.95	34,002.06	811.89
Institutional Expenses:			
Annual Conventions	7,764.33	5,917.34	1,846.99
Promotion and Maintenance of Memberships	35,852.19	35,003.46	848.73
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution)	108,538.69	105,055.54	3,483.15
Volume of Proceedings (Printing and Distribution)	13,378.96	11,314.86	2,064.10
Publications and Reports (Printing and Distribution)	1,214.40	1,388.63	174.23
Research Bulletins (Printing and Distribution)	9,990.00	10,002.28	12.28
Special Appropriations	32,295.44	42,533.82	10,238.38
Division of Accounts	8,326.45	8,108.76	217.69
Division of Legislation	17,209.93	18,138.66	928.73
Division of Business	17,594.63	16,606.35	988.28
Division of Publications	40,120.21	31,660.20	8,460.01
Division of Research	53,866.02	48,533.30	5,332.72
Division of Classroom Service	7,751.15	7,523.75	227.40
Division of Administrative Service	8,447.02	8,124.42	322.60
Division of Records and Membership	33,752.90	33,492.67	260.23
Bad Debts Written Off	204.77	836.45	631.68
	472,946.83	456,792.52	16,154.31
Surplus for Year	$39,497.36	20,703.44	18,793.92

As in former years, prepaid subscriptions, memberships, etc., have been treated as income of the current year.

Further particulars of the income and expenses for the year ended May 31, 1930, are submitted in Exhibit "A," appended hereto.

It will be noted that during the year under review there was an increase in the total income of $34,948.23 and an increase in the total expenses of $16,154.31 over the corresponding totals for the previous year. The expenses were approximately 92% of the income in the year just ended, as compared with 96% in the preceding year.

The following is a transcript of the Surplus Account for the year ended May 31, 1930:

Surplus as at May 31, 1929	$ 66,884.63
Add Surplus for Year ended May 31, 1930, as per Income and Expense Statement	39,497.36
Surplus as at May 31, 1930	$106,381.99

Receipts and Disbursements

The following is a summary of the cash receipts and disbursements as per the Treasurer's Report for the year:

Cash Balance as at May 31, 1929		$ 75,053.47
Add Receipts		510,096.93
		585,150.40
Deduct Disbursements		482,094.31
Cash Balance as at May 31, 1930		$103,056.09
Accounted for as follows:		
Revolving Fund	$ 30,000.00	
Less Expenditures not reimbursed	23,101.96	* 6,898.04
Regular Account—The Commercial National Bank		35,553.57
Special Deposit Account—The Commercial National Bank		604.48
Certificate of Deposit—The Commercial National Bank		60,000.00
Total		$103,056.09

Note:

* The Commercial National Bank—Special Account	$ 6,890.95
Petty Cash	7.09
	$ 6,898.04

The total income for the year may be reconciled with the cash receipts as follows:

Income as per Income and Expense Statement, Page 2		$512,444.19
Deduct:		
Net Increase in Accounts Receivable, after taking into account Bad Debts written off	$1,299.09	
Accrued Interest on Certificate of Deposit	1,170.41	2,469.50
		509,974.69
Add:		
Decrease in Time Checks	22.24	
Decrease in Notes Receivable	100.00	122.24
Cash Receipts for Year		$510,096.93

The total expenses for the year may be reconciled with the cash disbursements as follows:

Expenses as per Income and Expense Statement, page 2		$472,946.83
Add:		
Excess of Disbursements over Receipts of Departments as follows:		
Superintendence	$8,210.48	
Elementary School Principals	719.03	

Rural Education	$575.97	
Lip Reading	35.52	
Adult Education	266.39	
Secondary School Principals	97.00	
	7,049.35	
Bills of Previous Year paid during Current Year	22,407.67	
Expenditures for Furniture, Fixtures, Etc.	4,000.95	
Increase in Inventory of Stationery and Office Supplies	304.27	$33,762.24
		$506,709.07
Deduct:		
Bad Debts written off	204.77	
Bills Unpaid as at May 31, 1930	18,940.79	
Depreciation—Office Furniture, Fixtures, Etc.	5,469.20	24,614.76
Cash Disbursements for Year		$482,094.31

In support of the cash receipts we made a series of tests to satisfy ourselves that all of the income derived from memberships, subscriptions to the N. E. A. Journal, advertising and other sources, was properly accounted for.

All vouchers supporting the cash disbursements were examined and found in order.

Assets and Liabilities

The following is a statement of the assets and liabilities as at May 31, 1930 as shown by the books:

Assets

Cash:			
Secretary's Fund		$30,000.00	
Less Expenditures not reimbursed		23,101.96	
Balance in Bank	$6,890.95		
On Hand	7.09		6,898.04
Regular Account—in Bank			35,553.57
Special Deposit Account			604.48
Certificate of Deposit			60,000.00
Permanent Fund—in Bank:			
General		7,804.07	
Elementary School Principals		4,641.84	
Educational Research		327.38	12,773.29
			115,829.38
Accrued Interest on Certificate of Deposit			1,170.41
Accounts Receivable		14,674.20	
Less Reserve for Doubtful Accounts		1,000.00	13,674.20

Time Checks Receivable			1,258.01
Notes Receivable—Life Members			176,496.00
Stationery, Supplies, Stamped Envelopes, Etc.			1,702.25
Old Volumes of Proceedings and Other Publications			500.00
Securities at Book Value (Schedule "1"):			
General ($24,550.00 pledged on Note Payable)		178,315.97	
Educational Research Fund		6,982.29	185,298.26
Real Estate:			
Purchase Price		153,000.00	
Improvements and Alterations		24,629.06	
New Property:			
Additional Land Purchased	38,062.83		
Building Construction	35,599.59	73,662.42	251,291.48
Office Furniture, Fixtures and Equipment		58,692.96	
Less Reserve for Depreciation		31,341.56	27,351.40
			$774,571.39

LIABILITIES

Accounts Payable	18,940.79
Note Payable—Commercial National Bank (Secured)	20,000.00
Department of Superintendence	13,706.43
Department of Elementary School Principals	8,259.10
Department of Adult Education	208.61
Department of Rural Education	937.79
Department of Lip Reading	60.65
Department of Secondary School Principals	217.00
Permanent Fund	605,859.03
Surplus	106,381.99
	$774,571.39

We verified the Secretary's Fund by counting the cash on hand and by obtaining a certificate as to the amount in bank from The Commercial National Bank, which certificate also confirmed the Regular Account and the Certificate of Deposit. We examined the pass book to confirm the Special Deposit Account and received a certified report of The Commercial National Bank, as Trustee, confirming the cash in the Permanent Fund.

We examined the accounts receivable and found them to be in agreement with the General Ledger control account. We analyzed the accounts as to age and condition, and from our examination, supplemented by information obtained from the business manager, we are of the opinion that the reserve of $1,000.00 is adequate.

The life members' notes receivable were examined by us. These are payable in installments, and at the date of our examination payments on notes aggregating $24,764.00 were in arrears.

Stationery, supplies, stamped envelopes, etc. on hand are stated at book figures. We inspected the physical inventories supporting this item. The values are stated at cost and we obtained a certificate from the business manager as to the quantities and values.

As in previous years, the old Volumes of Proceedings and Other Publications are carried at a value of $500.00 which we believe is a conservative valuation. This asset as at May 31, 1930, comprised the following:

	Copies
Volumes of Proceedings	6,258
Health Education	205
School House Planning	4,480
Drama of American Independence	132
Harris' Book	564
Research Bulletins	40,225
Total	51,864

During the year under review land adjacent to the Association's property was acquired for $38,062.83, including expenses incident to the purchase, and a total of $35,599.59 was expended in connection with the construction of a new building, for which properly approved vouchers and other documents were submitted.

Additions to the furniture, fixtures and equipment during the year amounted to $4,000.95. We inspected vouchers for the major portion of this expenditure, which we found to be properly capitalized.

In connection with our examination of the liabilities, we found that vouchers aggregating approximately $1,180.00 applicable to the period prior to May 31, 1930, were not recorded on the books until after that date. Conversely, cash received in May, 1930, approximately $610.00 was entered in June, 1930. We obtained a certificate from the business manager that all known liabilities are shown on the books, except as noted above.

In connection with our examination of the liabilities, we communicated with The Commercial National Bank, Washington, D. C., and the reply received did not disclose any notes outstanding at May 31, 1930, beyond the amount ($20,000.00) included in the liabilities. This represents a demand note dated May 16, 1930, bearing 6% interest, and is secured by the following collateral:

$10,000.00 Par Value Chicago, Indiana & Southern Ry. Co. 4% Bonds due 1956.
$15,000.00 Par Value Terminal Railroad Associations of St. Louis General Refunding Sinking Fund 4% Bonds due 1953.

The accounts of the Department of Elementary School Principals were examined by us and found to be correct. The balance of $13,706.43 standing to the credit of the Department of Superintendence was compared with the books of the Department and found to be in agreement therewith.

Permanent Fund

The following is a comparative summary of the assets of the Permanent Fund as at May 31, 1930 and 1929:

	As at May 31		Increase
	1930	*1929*	Decrease
Cash—General	$7,804.07	28,544.04	20,739.97
Cash—Elementary School Principals	4,641.84	....	4,641.84
Cash—Educational Research Fund	327.38	....	327.38
Notes Receivable—Life Members	176,496.00	116,162.00	60,334.00
Securities—General	178,315.97	168,552.35	9,763.62
Securities—Educational Research Fund	6,982.29	....	6,982.29
Real Estate	153,000.00	153,000.00	....
Improvements	24,629.06	24,012.57	616.49
New Property—Land and Building Construction	73,662.42	....	73,662.42
	625,859.03	490,270.96	135,588.07
Note Payable to The Commercial National Bank	20,000.00	....	20,000.00
Total	$605,859.03	490,270.96	115,588.07

We have checked the record of receipts and disbursements of the Permanent Fund for the year against vouchers and certified statements obtained from the Trustee. Vouchers were produced to us covering the expenditures on the construction of the new building adjoining the present property. We attended at The Commercial National Bank, Trustee, where we inspected the securities, a detailed list of which, showing par and book values, is attached hereto as Schedule "1".

In connection with the financing of the new building, arrangements have been made with the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company for a loan of $200,000.00, with interest at 6%, to be available in payments as needed. The Association must expend $125,000.00 on construction before any part of the loan is available.

The changes in the securities during the year are as follows:

	Par Value	*Book Value*
Securities as at May 31, 1929	$170,250.00	168,552.35
Sold or Matured during Year:		
Salt Lake City, Utah, Water Bonds 4½% due 1934	10,000.00	10,000.00
Seattle, Washington, School Bonds 4½% due 1931	10,000.00	10,266.30
Borough of North Arlington, N. J., 5% Bonds due 1932	5,000.00	5,159.27
Newport News Library Bonds 4½% due 1929	1,500.00	1,500.00
Oregon Short Line R. R. Co. Ref. Gold Bonds 4% due 1929	10,000.00	8,895.00
State of Arkansas 5% Bonds due 1944	3,000.00	3,072.90
	39,500.00	38,893.47
	130,750.00	129,658.88
Purchased or Acquired during Year:		
State of Arkansas 5% Bonds due 1944	26,000.00	26,631.80
State of Louisiana, Port of New Orleans 5% Bonds due 1934	4,000.00	4,048.53
Port Commission, New Orleans 5% Bonds due 1934	5,000.00	5,060.66
City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1931	1,000.00	998.23

City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1931	$3,000.00	$2,994.71
City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1932	6,000.00	5,984.06
City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1938	5,000.00	4,963.86
City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1940	5,000.00	4,957.53
	55,000.00	55,639.38
Securities as at May 31, 1930	$185,750.00	185,298.26

The following statement shows the changes in the Permanent Fund during the year:

Balance as at May 31, 1929		$490,270.96
Added during Year:		
Cash received from Life Members' Fees	$43,917.20	
Notes for Life Members' Fees	60,334.00	
Amount transferred from Department of Elementary School Principals	4,188.34	
Amount transferred from Educational Research Fund	7,309.67	
	115,749.21	
Net Loss on Securities Sold	161.14	115,588.07
Balance as at May 31, 1930		$605,859.03

The following is a summary of the income and expenses of the Permanent Fund for the Year:

Income:		
Income from Securities Owned (Schedule "1")		$6,818.58
Income from Securities Sold or Called during Year		997.77
Rent charged to General Headquarters		14,265.00
Interest on Cash Balances		144.79
		22,226.14
Expenses:		
Insurance	$487.97	
Trustee's Commission	846.00	
Miscellaneous	56.95	1,390.92
Net Income transferred to the Association		$20,835.22

All income from investments was properly accounted for and vouchers were produced in support of the expenses.

Yours truly,

PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & CO.

STATEMENTS

Exhibit "A"

INCOME AND EXPENSES

For the Year ended May 31, 1930.

Income:			
Memberships from Secretary's Office			$184,545.59
N. E. A. Journal:			
Subscriptions (Part of Membership Dues)		$168,895.00	
Advertising		83,251.63	
Sales		175.55	252,322.18
Sales of Proceedings			793.20
Sales of Special Reports			3,438.22
Commercial Exhibits			32,080.25
Research Bulletins:			
Subscriptions		4,588.50	
Sales		5,770.09	
Special Investigations		621.79	10,980.38
Honorariums			984.90
Rentals			2,187.50
Interest and Discount Earned			2,378.06
Cash Sales—Reports, Pamphlets, Etc.			1,798.65
Net Income from Permanent Fund Investments			20,835.22
Sundry Income			100.04
Total Income			512,444.19
Expenses:			
Board of Trustees		798.51	
Board of Directors		8,347.00	
Executive Committee:			
President (Miss Pyrtle) 1929-30	$1,354.14		
President's Traveling and Clerical Services	955.45		
President (Mr. Lamkin) 1928-29	747.37		
First Vice President (Mr. Lamkin—1929-30)	229.47		
First Vice President (Miss Adair—1928-29)	164.14		
Treasurer (Dr. Smith)	337.62		
Chairman, Board of Trustees (Mr. Siders)	1,056.44		
Member by Election (Mr. Reynolds)	248.35	5,092.98	
General Secretary's Office:			
Salary of Secretary	12,000.00		
Clerical Services	12,294.30		
Traveling Expenses	1,091.01		
Stationery and Office Supplies	565.42		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	1,433.26		
Telegrams, Etc.	203.31	27,587.30	
Carried Forward		$41,825.79	$512,444.19
Total Income, Brought Forward			$512,444.19

INCOME AND EXPENSES, Continued

Expenses, Continued:

Brought Forward			$41,825.79	
Headquarters Expenses:				
General Expenses		$150.50		
Purchase of Books (General Use)		12.00		
Refunds—Miscellaneous		6.34		
Express and Freight		745.92		
Postage—Miscellaneous Reports and Pamphlets		211.42		
Telephone and Telegrams		2,359.55		
Repairs—Office Furniture and Fixtures		385.68		
Depreciation—Office Furniture and Fixtures		5,469.20		
Interest and Discounts Allowed		1,469.32		
Surety Bonds		227.50		
Insurance		527.50		
Audit Fee, Etc.		850.10		
Physical Plant Expenses:				
Rent—1201 16th St., N.W.	$14,265.00			
Rent—1521-27 M St.	825.00			
Light and Power	1,381.17			
Heat	597.33			
Janitor Service	2,652.59			
Maintenance	2,677.83	22,398.92	34,813.95	
Institutional Expenses:				
Annual Conventions:				
Department Expenses		201.29		
Registration Bureau		529.16		
Stenographers and Typing		644.45		
Publicity		352.81		
Printing		1,930.30		
Express and Freight		565.47		
Telephone and Telegrams		17.37		
Programs		2,154.78		
Badges		87.43		
Representative Assembly Expense		1,281.27		
		7,764.33		
Promotion and Maintenance of Membership		35,852.19		
N. E. A. Journal (Printing—Distribution)		108,538.69		
Volume of Proceedings (Printing—Distribution)		13,378.96		
Publications and Reports (Printing and Distribution)		1,214.40		
Research Bulletin (Printing and Distribution)		9,990.00	176,738.57	
Carried Forward			$253,378.31	$512,444.19
Total Income, Brought Forward				$512,444.19

INCOME AND EXPENSES, Continued

Expenses, Continued: Brought Forward		$253,378.31	
Special Appropriations for the Year:			
World Federation	$1,043.75		
Committee on Health Education	1,016.10		
Life Annuities and Insurance	6,865.08		
Legislative Commission	1,988.73		
National Council of Education	320.22		
Committee on Tenure	22.74		
Department of Classroom Teachers	7,737.82		
Financing of Delegates	8,484.05		
American Education Week	200.00		
Department of Elementary School Principals	1,000.00		
Membership—World Conference on Education	1,000.00		
Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions	608.66		
Membership—American Council on Education	100.00		
Committee of One Hundred on Retirement	240.29		
Committee on Professional Ethics	296.05		
Committee on Investigation of Propaganda in Schools	353.38		
Committee on Visual Education	18.57		
Department of Adult Education	1,000.00	32,295.44	
Division of Accounts:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	7,639.79		
Traveling Expense	185.04		
Stationery and Office Supplies	236.25		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	257.56		
Telegrams	7.81	8,326.45	
Division of Legislation:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	14,230.52		
Traveling Expense	2,379.06		
Stationery and Office Supplies	219.67		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	298.83		
Telegrams	81.85	17,209.93	
Carried Forward		$311,210.13	$512,444.19
Total Income, Brought Forward			$512,444.19

INCOME AND EXPENSES, Continued

Expenses, Continued:			
Brought Forward		$311,210.13	
Division of Business:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	$14,556.50		
Traveling Expense	1,219.83		
Stationery and Office Supplies	278.79		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	485.28		
Telegrams	101.05		
Advertising Expense	691.96		
Typing Section	17.79		
Mailing Section	229.63		
Multigraph Section	13.80	17,594.63	
Division of Publications:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	33,979.44		
Traveling Expense	1,814.04		
Stationery and Office Supplies	905.49		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	1,528.33		
Telegrams	160.86		
Reprints	730.52		
Photographs and Prints	1,001.53	40,120.21	
Division of Research:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	47,067.48		
Traveling Expense	1,513.42		
Stationery and Office Supplies	803.60		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	1,464.92		
Telegrams	121.16		
Special Charts, Tables, Etc.	1,960.08		
Books and Pamphlets	935.36	53,866.02	
Division of Classroom Service:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	7,112.43		
Traveling Expense	399.23		
Stationery and Office Supplies	69.68		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	162.31		
Telegrams	7.50	7,751.15	
Division of Administrative Service:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	8,169.13		
Traveling Expense	142.79		
Stationery and Office Supplies	118.39		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	16.71	8,447.02	
Carried Forward		$438,989.16	$512,444.19
Total Income, Brought Forward			$512,444.19

Expenses, Continued:			
Brought Forward		$438,989.16	
Division of Records and Membership:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	$30,929.94		
Traveling Expense	539.77		
Stationery and Office Supplies	465.13		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	549.11		
Telegrams	18.06		
Addressograph Expense	1,250.89	33,752.90	
Bad Debts Written Off		204.77	
Total Expenses			472,946.83
Surplus for the Year			$39,497.36

SCHEDULE "1"

SECURITIES ON HAND

As at May 31, 1930.

	Value		*Income*
	Par	*Book*	*Received*
Municipal Bonds:			
Clearwater, Kansas, Water Works 5% Bonds due:			
1930—No. 18	$1,000.00	1,000.00	50.00
1931—Nos. 19-20	2,000.00	2,000.00	100.00
1932—Nos. 21-23	3,000.00	3,000.00	150.00
County of Aiken, S. C. Highway Bonds 4½% due 1939—Nos. 346-350	5,000.00	5,064.38	225.00
County of Columbus, S. C. Highway Bonds 5% due 1954—Nos. 216-220	5,000.00	5,470.75	250.00
City of Monessen, Pa. 4½% Bonds due 1951—Nos. 66-70	5,000.00	5,206.39	225.00
Newport News Library Bonds 4½% due 1930-48—Nos. 4-90	43,500.00	43,500.00	2,025.00
State of Arkansas 5% Bonds due 1950—Nos. 3714-3718	5,000.00	5,166.51	250.00
State of Arkansas 5% Bonds due 1944—Nos. 2104-26	23,000.00	23,558.90	778.47
State of Louisiana, Port of New Orleans 5% Bonds due 1934—Nos. A3784-7	4,000.00	4,048.53	21.25
Port Commission, New Orleans 5% Bonds due 1934—Nos. 2476-80	5,000.00	5,060.66	
*City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1931—No. 1	1,000.00	998.23	173.86
City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1931—Nos. M2-4	3,000.00	2,994.71	
*City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1932—Nos. M32-7	6,000.00	5,984.06	
City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1938—Nos. M168-172	5,000.00	4,963.86	
City of New Orleans 4½% Bonds due 1940—Nos. M220-4	5,000.00	4,957.53	
Total Municipal Bonds, Carried Forward	$121,500.00	122,974.51	4,248.58

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* Educational Research Fund.

	Value		*Income*
	Par	*Book*	*Received*
Municipal Bonds, Brought Forward	$121,500.00	122.974.51	4,248.58
Railroad Bonds:			
Atlantic Coast Line R. R. Co. 1st Cons. Mtge. Bonds 4% due 1952—Nos. 5130, 6494, 11638, 11639, 14335, 14339, 17579, 24601, 37565 and 50251	$10,000.00	9,600.00	400.00
Baltimore and Ohio R. R. Co. (Pittsburgh, Lake Erie, & West Virginia System) Ref. Gold Bonds 4% due 1941—Nos. 13496-13500 and 21236-21250	20,000.00	19,942.50	800.00
**Chicago, Indiana & Southern Ry. Co. 4% due 1956—Nos. 11386-11394 and 13786	10,000.00	9,500.00	400.00
Manhattan Railway Co. Cons. Mtge. 4% Gold Bonds due 1990—Nos. 2843, 6522, 16083 and 16087	4,000.00	3,900.00	160.00
St. Louis and San Francisco R. R. Co. Prior Lien Mtge. Bonds 4% due 1950—Nos. M56051-M56055 and Y1527	5,250.00	4,331.25	210.00
**Terminal R. R. Association of St. Louis Gen. Ref. S. F. Gold Bonds 4% due 1953—Nos. 16311-16325	15,000.00	15,050.00	600.00
	64,250.00	62,323.75	2,570.00
	$185,750.00	185,298.26	6,818.58

** Pledged as Collateral for Demand Note of $20,000.00.

REPORT OF THE TREASURER

From June 1, 1929, to May 31, 1930

Balance brought forward from Treasurer's Report for the Years ended May 31, 1929			$75,053.47

Receipts:

For Account:	*May 31, 1929*	*May 31, 1930*	
Department of Superintendence (Net)	$21,916.91	$13,706.43	
Department of Elementary School Principals (Net)	7,540.07	8,259.10	
Department of Adult Education (Net)	475.00	208.61	
Department of Rural Education (Net)	361.82	937.79	
Department of Lip Reading (Net)	25.13	60.65	
Department of Secondary School Principals (Net)	120.00	217.00	
			$7,049.35
	$30,438.93	$23,389.58	

From Secretary's Office during year:		
Membership Fees	$184,545.59	
Subscriptions to N. E. A. Journal	168,895.00	
Subscriptions to Research Bulletin	4,588.50	
Sale of Volumes of Proceedings	793.20	
Sale of Special Reports	3,438.22	
Sale of Research Bulletins	5,770.09	
Special Investigations (Research)	621.79	
Sale of N. E. A. Journals	175.55	
Cash Sales of Reports and Pamphlets	1,798.65	
	$370,626.59	
From Income on Permanent Fund	20,835.22	
From Commercial Exhibits (Net)	32,080.25	
From Advertising—N. E. A. Journal	83,251.63	
From Interest and Discounts Earned	1,207.65	
From Rentals Received	2,187.50	
From Honorariums (Field Work)	984.90	
From Sundry Income—Exchange, etc	100.04	
		511,273.78
		$504,224.43

Disbursements:

Board of Trustees—Expenses		$798.51
Board of Directors—Expenses		8,347.00
Executive Committee:		
President (Miss Pyrtle)	$1,354.14	
President (Mr. Lamkin)	747.37	
President's Contingent Fund	955.45	
First Vice President (Miss Adair)	164.14	
First Vice President (Mr. Lamkin)	229.47	
Treasurer (Dr. Simth)	337.62	
Chairman, Board of Trustees (Mr. Siders)	1,056.44	
Member by Election (Mr. Reynolds)	248.35	
		5,092.98

Disbursements, Continued:		
Office of General Secretary:		
General Expense (Salaries, Stationery, etc.)		$27,587.30
General Expense—Headquarters:		
General Expense	$168.84	
Express, Freight and Parcel Post	957.34	
Telephone Service	2,359.55	
Repairs—Office Furniture and Fixtures	385.68	
Interest and Discounts Allowed	1,469.32	
Surety Bonds	227.50	
Insurance	527.50	
Auditing Accounts of Association	850.10	
Physical Plant—Rents, Light, Heat, Power and Janitor	22,398.92	
		29,344.75
Institutional Expense:		
Annual Conventions:		
Department Expenses	201.29	
Registration Bureau	529.16	
Stenographic Service	644.45	
Publicity	352.81	
Printing	1,930.30	
Express and Freight	565.47	
Telephones and Telegrams	17.37	
Programs (Speakers, etc.)	2,154.78	
Badges	87.43	
Representative Assembly Expense	1,281.27	
		7,764.33
Promotion and Maintenance of Membership	35,852.19	
Membership—World Conference in Education	1,000.00	
Membership—American Council on Education	100.00	
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution)	108,538.69	
Volume of Proceedings (1929)	13,378.96	
Research Bulletin (Printing and Distribution)	9,990.00	
Publications and Reports for General Sale	1,214.40	
		177,838.57
Special Appropriations for the Year 1929-30:		
World Federation	1,043.75	
Committee on Health Education	1,016.10	
Life Annuities and Insurance	6,865.08	
Legislative Commission	1,988.73	
National Council in Education	320.22	
Committee on Tenure	22.74	
Department of Classroom Teachers	7,737.82	
Financing of Delegates	8,484.05	
American Education Week	200.00	
Department of Elementary School Principals	1,000.00	
Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Questions	608.66	
Committee of 100 on Retirement Allowances	240.29	
Committee on Professional Ethics	296.05	
Committee on Investigation of Propaganda in the Schools	353.38	
Committee on Visual Education	18.57	
Department of Adult Education	1,000.00	
		31,195.44

Division of Accounts: (Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	$8,326.45
Division of Field (Legislative): (Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	17,209.93
Division of Business: (Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	17,594.63
Division of Publications: (Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	40,120.21
Division of Research: (Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	53,866.02
Division of Classroom Service: (Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	7,751.15
Division of Administrative Service: (Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	8,447.02
Division of Records and Membership: (Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	23,752.90
Purchase of Office Stationery, Postage and Supplies	304.27
Purchase of Office Furniture and Fixtures	4,000.95
	$471,578.08

Cash Summary

Balance as per Treasurer's Report, May 31, 1929			$75,053.47
Receipts for the Year ended May 31, 1930:			
Total as per page 17		$511,273.78	
Deduct:			
Bad debts written off	$204.77		
Increase in Accounts Receivable	1,094.32		
		1,299.09	
		$509,974.69	
Add:			
Decrease in Notes Receivable	100.00		
Decrease in Time Checks	22.24		
		122.24	
Total Receipts			510,096.93
			$585,150.40
Disbursements for the Year:			
Total as per above		$471,578.08	
Add:			
Decrease in balances due the various departments		7,049.35	
		$478,627.43	
Deduct:			
Unpaid Vouchers at May 31, 1930		18,940.79	
		$459,686.64	
Add:			
Unpaid Vouchers at May 31, 1929		22,407.67	
			482,094.31
Balance in Treasury, May 31, 1930			$103,056.09

REPORT OF THE BUDGET COMMITTEE

Appropriations

The following is an excerpt from a resolution adopted by the Board of Directors in 1927:

Before making any appropriations for any fiscal year, the Board of Directors shall have in hand and shall have considered all requests for appropriations for the year, and shall also have in hand an estimate from the Secretary and the Board of Trustees of the probable income for the year. Appropriations shall not be made in excess of this estimate.

The Limit of Appropriations

In line with the policy stated above, the Budget Committee adopted the amount of the income of the last fiscal year as the maximum amount to be budgeted for the year, 1930-1931. This amount, as shown by the report of the Auditors, is $512,444.19.

The amount recommended for the budget is $501,717.79, including an item of $6,500.00, to provide an Emergency Fund—a fund to be used only in a real emergency and to provide a service which could not be postponed without serious loss to the Association.

Budget Recommendations for 1930-31

Approved by the Board of Directors, July 1, 1930

			Appropriated 1930-31
1. Board of Trustees:			
Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$ 768.79		
1926-27	412.53		
1927-28	419.83		
1928-29	613.69		
1929-30	798.51		
Amount recommended for 1930-31		$ 800.00	———
2. Executive Committee:			
Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$3,904.91		
1926-27	4,635.81		
1927-28	4,356.78		
1928-29	3,313.01		
1929-30	4,137.53		
Amount recommended for 1930-31		$ 3,250.00	———
3. Board of Directors:			
Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$		
1926-27	6,117.93		
1927-28	7,829.08		
1928-29	7,821.49		
1929-30	8,347.00		
Amount recommended for 1930-31		$ 8,500.00	———

4. Contingent fund for President:

			Appropriated 1930-31
Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$		
1926-27	......		
1927-28	1,517.97		
1928-29	440.47		
1929-30	955.45		
Amount recommended for 1930-31		$ 1,000.00	———

5. General Secretary's Office:

Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$19,845.15		
1926-27	23,513.29		
1927-28	23,227.83		
1928-29	26,361.71		
1929-30	27,587.30		
Amount recommended for 1930-31:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	$23,600.00		
Traveling Expense	1,000.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies	500.00		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	1,200.00		
Telegrams	200.00		
Total		$26,500.00	

6. Field Division (Legislative):

Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$16,532.55		
1926-27	15,393.50		
1927-28	17,823.82		
1928-29	18,138.66		
1929-30	17,209.93		
Amount recommended for 1930-31:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	$14,375.00		
Traveling Expense	2,000.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies	400.00		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	600.00		
Telegrams	125.00		
Total		$17,500.00	

7. Division of Business and Accounts:

A. *Business:*

Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$20,058.64		
1926-27	14,231.97		
1927-28	14,805.73		
1928-29	16,606.35		
1929-30	17,594.63		
Amount recommended for 1930-31:			
Salaries and Clerical Services	$15,229.00		
Traveling Expense	1,500.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies	300.00		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	425.00		

				Appropriated 1930-31
Telegrams		$95.00		
Typing Section		20.00		
Mailing Section		500.00		
Multigraph Section		75.00		
Advertising Service		500.00		
Total			$18,644.00	
B. *Accounts:*				
Actual expenses for last five years:				
1925-26	$ 5,643.87			
1926-27	7,434.53			
1927-28	7,822.72			
1928-29	8,108.76			
1929-30	8,326.45			
Amount recommended for 1930-31:				
Salaries and Clerical Service		$ 8,000.00		
Traveling Expense		250.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies		275.00		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes		300.00		
Total			$ 8,825.00	
TOTAL for Division			27,469.00	
8. Division of Publications:				
Actual expenses for last five years:				
1925-26	$17,170.45			
1926-27	23,366.27			
1927-28	27,386.40			
1928-29	31,660.20			
1929-30	40,120.21			
Amount recommended for 1930-31:				
Salaries and Clerical Service		$37,024.00		
Traveling Expense		1,800.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies		1,000.00		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes		1,600.00		
Telegrams		160.00		
Reprints		850.00		
Photographs, Prints, Mats and Electros		1,000.00		
Total			$43,434.00	
9. Division of Classroom Service:				
Actual expenses for last five years:				
1925-26	$ 6,088.77			
1926-27	6,495.36			
1927-28	7,155.10			
1928-29	7,523.75			
1929-30	7,751.15			
Amount recommended for 1930-31:				
Salaries and Clerical Services		$ 7,500.00		
Traveling Expense		400.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies		90.00		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes		170.00		
Telegrams		10.00		
Total			$ 8,170.00	

10. Division of Research:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$22,454.53
1926-27	29,476.60
1927-28	38,073.80
1928-29	48,533.30
1929-30	53,866.02

Amount recommended for 1930-31:

			Appropriated 1930-31
Salaries and Clerical Services	$52,000.00		
Traveling Expense	1,600.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies	750.00		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	1,500.00		
Telegrams	200.00		
Special Charts, Tables, etc.	2,050.00		
Books and Pamphlets (Library)	900.00		
Total		$59,000.00	

11. Division of Administrative Service:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$ 2,994.55
1926-27	4,555.89
1927-28	6,760.35
1928-29	8,124.42
1929-30	8,447.02

Amount recommended for 1930-31:

			Appropriated 1930-31
Salaries and Clerical Service	$ 8,600.00		
Traveling Expense	250.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies	125.00		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	25.00		
Total		$ 9,000.00	

12. Division of Records and Membership:

A. *Records:*

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$20,519.06
1926-27	31,311.87
1927-28	31,388.43
1928-29	33,492.67
1929-30	33,752.90

Amount recommended for 1930-31:

			Appropriated 1930-31
Salaries and Clerical Services	$32,100.00		
Traveling Expense	700.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies	350.00		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	300.00		
Telegrams	50.00		
Stock, Supplies and Machine Upkeep (Addressograph Section)	1,500.00		
Total		$35.000.00	

B. *Membership:*

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$25,921.42
1926-27	37,832.95
1927-28	38,691.16
1928-29	35,003.46
1929-30	35,852.19

Amount recommended for 1930-31:

			Appropriated 1930-31
Total		$36,000.00	
TOTAL for Division		71,000.00	

13. Physical Plant:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$20,736.02
1926-27	20,837.69
1927-28	21,204.94
1928-29	22,211.84
1929-30	22,398.92

Amount recommended for 1930-31:

			Appropriated 1930-31
Rent	$17,150		
Lights and Power	2,500		
Heat	1,400		
Janitor Service	4,150		
Maintenance	4,800		
Total		$30,000.00	

14. General Office Expenses:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$ 6,496.32
1926-27	7,421.35
1927-28	8,002.24
1928-29	6,814.32
1929-30	6,945.83

Amount recommended for 1930-31:

			Appropriated 1930-31
Telephone Service	$ 2,635.00		
Repairs—Office Furniture and Equipment	300.00		
Insurance	310.67		
General Expense	200.00		
Refunds of Overpayments	50.00		
Purchase of Back Volumes	30.00		
Express and Freight	900.00		
Interest and Discount Allowed	1,075.00		
Surety Bonds	235.00		
Auditing Accounts of Association	850.00		
Mailing—Reports and Pamphlets	350.00		
Total		$ 6,935.67	

15. Annual Conventions:

				Appropriated 1930-31
Actual expenses for last five years:				
1925-26	$ 8,502.45			
1926-27	7,475.97			
1927-28	5,761.26			
1928-29	5,917.34			
1929-30	7,764.33			
Amount recommended for 1930-31:				
Department Expenses		$ 200.00		
Registration		500.00		
Stenographers and Typing		600.00		
Publicity		200.00		
Printing		1,900.00		
Express and Freight		500.00		
General Expense (Program)		2,469.33		
Badges		85.00		
Representative Assembly Expense		1,310.00		
Total			$ 7,764.33	

16. Journal of the National Education Association:

Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$ 92,687.66		
1926-27	96,769.44		
1927-28	101,374.69		
1928-29	105,055.54		
1929-30	108,538.69		
Amount recommended for 1930-31		$108,538.69	

17. Research Bulletin:

Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$ 6,867.12		
1926-27	7,493.03		
1927-28	7,432.20		
1928-29	10,002.28		
1929-30	9,990.00		
Amount recommended for 1930-31		$ 9,990.00	

18. Volume of Proceedings:

Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$ 8,458.22		
1926-27	9,191.81		
1927-28	9,850.57		
1928-29	11,314.86		
1929-30	13,378.96		
Amount recommended for 1930-31:		$13,250.00	

19. Publications and reports for General Sale:

Actual expenses for last five years:			
1925-26	$		
1926-27	2,637.31		
1927-28	864.50		
1928-29	1,388.63		
1929-30	1,214.40		
Amount recommended for 1930-31		$ 100.00	

Appropriated
1930-31

20. Financing Delegates:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$ 9,379.00
1926-27	12,977.50
1927-28	17,178.83
1928-29	7,862.50
1929-30	8,484.05

Amount recommended for 1930-31.......... $10,000.00

21. Special Committee Appropriations:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$15,279.75
1926-27	16,946.24
1927-28	17,358.59
1928-29	26,052.31
1929-30	15,846.31

Amount recommended for 1930-31:

Foreign Relations (Publicity)	$ 300.00	
Health Education	500.00	
Legislative Commission	1,000.00	
Tenure	200.00	
Dept. Classroom Teachers	10,000.00	
American Education Week	500.00	
Dept. Elementary School Principals	1,000.00	
One Hundred on Retirement Allowances	500.00	
Dept. Adult Education	1,000.00	
Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions	500.00	
National Council of Education	500.00	
Economic Status of Teachers	1,000.00	
Joint Committee on Colored Schools	350.00	
American Research Dept.	1,000.00	
Total		$18,350.00

22. Office Furniture and Fixtures:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$ 3,614.07
1926-27	9,465.82
1927-28	5,568.26
1928-29	4,932.97
1929-30	4,000.95

Amount recommended for 1930-31.......... $ 4,200.00

23. Association Membership Fees:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1925-26	$ 1,100.00
1926-27	1,100.00
1927-28	1,100.00
1928-29	1,100.00
1929-30	1,100.00

Amount recommended for 1930-31.......... $ 100.00

		Appropriated 1930-31
24. Retirement Annuities and Insurance:		
Actual expenses for last five years:		
1925-26	$	
1926-27	....	
1927-28	3,627.25	
1928-29	7,519.01	
1929-30	6,865.08	
Amount recommended for 1930-31		$10,366.10
25. Emergency Fund:		
Amount recommended for 1930-31		$ 6,500.00
GRAND TOTAL		$501,717.79

Respectfully submitted,

BUDGET COMMITTEE.

W. B. Mooney, Secretary, Colorado Education Association, Denver, Colorado
Joseph Rosier, President, State Normal School, Fairmont, West Virginia
Geo. W. Wannamaker, Superintendent of Schools, St. Matthews, South Carolina
A. L. Whittenberg, Secretary State Examining Board, Springfield, Illinois
L. W. Rogers, *Chairman,* First Assistant State Superintendent, Austin, Texas.

Distribution of Budget—1930-31

Section I—Division of Headquarters

	Salaries and Clerical	Travel	Stationery and Office Sup.	Postage	Telegrams	Special Service of Division	Total	Grand Total
5. Secretary's Office	$ 23,600.00	$ 1,000.00	$ 500.00	$ 1,200.00	$ 200.00		$ 26,500.00	
6. Field Division (Legislative)	14,375.00	2,000.00	400.00	600.00	125.00		17,500.00	
7. Div. of Business and Accounts	23,229.00	1,750.00	575.00	725.00	95.00	$1,095.00	27,469.00	
8. Div. of Publications......	37,024.00	1,800.00	1,000.00	1,600.00	160.00	1,850.00	43,434.00	
9. Div. of Classroom Service	7,500.00	400.00	90.00	170.00	10.00		8,170.00	
10. Div. of Research........	52,000.00	1,600.00	750.00	1,500.00	200.00	2,950.00	59,000.00	
11. Div. of Administrative Service	8,600.00	250.00	125.00	25.00			9,000.00	
12. Div. of Records and Membership	32,100.00	700.00	350.00	300.00	50.00	37,500.00	71,000.00	
TOTAL	$198,428.00	$ 9,500.00	$ 3,790.00	$ 6,120.00	$ 840.00	$ 43,395.00		$262,073.00

Section II—General Operation of Headquarters

	Service of Employees	Building Operation and Rental	General Institutional Operation	Insurance of Building Contents and Protection of Public and Employees	Total	Grand Total
13. Physical Plant	$ 4,150.00	$ 25,850.00			$ 30,000.00	
14. Gen. Office Expenses.....	1,385.00		$5,005.00	$545.67	6,935.67	
22. Furniture and Fixt.....			4,200.00		4,200.00	
24. Retirement Annuities and Insurance				10,366.10	10,366.10	
TOTAL	$ 5,535.00	$ 25,850.00	$ 9,205.00	$ 10,911.77		$ 51,501.77

Section III—General Activities of Association

	Travel	Printing	Convention and President's Contingent Fund	Operations of Committees	Operations of Departments	Fees for Membership in Other Organizations		Total	Grand Total
1. Board of Trustees........	$ 800.00							$ 800.00	
2. Executive Committee	3,250.00							3,250.00	
3. Board of Directors.......	8,500.00							8,500.00	
4. Contingent Fund for President			$ 1,000.00					1,000.00	
15. Annual Conventions		$ 1,900.00	5,664.33		$ 200.00			7,764.33	
16. Journal of the N. E. A....		108,538.69						108,538.69	
17. Research Bulletin		9,990.00						9,990.00	
18. Volume of Proceedings...		13,250.00						13,250.00	
19. Publications and Reports for Gen. Sale..........		100.00						100.00	
20. Financing Delegates	10.000.00							10,000.00	
21. Special Appropriations ...				$ 5,850.00	12,500.00			18,350.00	
23. Association Membership Fees						$ 100.00		100.00	
TOTAL	$ 22,550.00	$133,778.69	$ 6,664.33	$ 5,850.00	$ 12,700.00	$ 100.00			$181,643.02

Section IV—Emergency Fund

	Emergency								
25. Emergency Fund	$ 6,500.00							$ 6,500	
TOTAL	$ 6,500.00								$ 6,500.00 $501,717.79

THE SECRETARY'S REPORT

The New Emergency in Education

IN 1918 the Association appointed the National Commission on the Emergency in Education. Not only members of the Commission, but scores of other men and women put their best thought and effort into the problems of reconstruction month after month and year after year. Thousands of teachers gave time and sacrificed dollars in order to help. It was largely those sacrifices and the fine teamwork in the profession that saved the day for the schools of the nation.

Readjustments after the war

We are now confronted with readjustment problems more serious and more formidable than those that followed the world war. These problems have grown out of the recent rapid changes in industry, in finance, in labor, and in social conditions. The need for a study of the present situation as careful and thorough as that made following the world war is as urgent now as the former study was at that time. How can we secure the degree of cooperation that was secured in the more easily understood period of a decade ago? First, do you realize that we are actually confronted by an alarming situation? History warns us of the certain breakdown that follows war. It does not warn us of similar dangers that develop in times of peace. We do not remain on guard long after a storm has passed. Having met a recent emergency, we make the mistake of failing to see what is developing all about us. Facts will bear out the statement that no such consequential changes as we are now facing have ever before taken place in time of war or peace.

The new emergency

No war could disrupt conditions more ruthlessly than is being done by invention and machinery. No war could put factories into disuse or into part time use more rapidly than is being done by changes in social demands and by consolidation. Machinery has shifted and displaced labor at an appalling rate during the last two or three years. We have here an illustration at our own national headquarters. Our Membership Division has just installed a piece of apparatus which enables two girls to do the work that five did last year. New telephone appliances were recently installed in Washington enabling fewer than one hundred girls to do the work which was formerly done by four hundred. The talking pictures and the radio have displaced, in hotels and theatres, thousands of musicians. Chain stores are rapidly taking the place of independent stores, and while decreasing overhead expenses, greatly decreasing the number of workers. Banks are merging with like results. Utilities are combining. Manufacturing corporations are swallowing up their lesser competitors. Farms are drained of their small profits in various ways. It is becoming increasingly difficult to finance education. This is most noticeable in rural areas.

Changes that make adjustments necessary

These changes may be for the better in the long run. It all depends on the intelligence and speed with which readjustments can be made. Peace time developments in the past have been gradual and have been made without conscious effort. As machinery took the place of labor, other lines of human enterprise opened up new opportunities. A balance was easily maintained. But conditions have recently been thrown out of balance. Industry and finance have run ahead of everything else in organization and power. Things are no longer moving along in orderly fashion. It means more to social progress and to the happiness of people to maintain a reasonable balance than to have wide extremes and sudden fluctuations. The present lack of balance may be due to speeding up industry and finance while permitting other lines of progress to lag behind. Our work is laid out for us. It is to speed up educational adjustments.

Certain companies far ahead of the main army

You can readily see the need of group thinking in every activity. Is our own organization ready to do its part? The farmers are too badly crushed to hold their own in competition with giant industry. Their organization lacks in force. The rural school suffers as the farming interests suffer. Unless our profession is strong enough to see that the needs of the rural child get the attention of the public and lawmaking bodies, who is going to do it? The controlling powers in industry and finance do not want labor to suffer. They do not want farmers to go out of business. They do not want education to be neglected. But their duties to their own interests come first. They do not take time to do reliable thinking for labor, for the farm, or for education. Who expects them to? They may at times think they know best, but on deeper thought they realize that labor, agriculture, and education must each be responsible for setting forth its own needs and for formulating plans for promoting its own welfare. Do you think that the gains of recent years in the improvement of school conditions could have been made, had the responsibility for them been left in the hands of business or finance or in the hands of any other well meaning outside agency?

Each field to do its own thinking

The recent improvement in school conditions did not just happen. It came as a direct result of interest, effort, and organization. The National Education Association, in cooperation with other agencies, met the emergency of a decade ago in a remarkably effective manner. The organized profession prevented a breakdown in education. It merited and secured the confidence and goodwill of the people. It has the fullest respect of the public at the present time. That is what makes it strong. That together with its wise purposes and policies is what gives it standing with other professions. That is why its voice is heard in legislative bodies. That is why, with an enlarged membership, it can confidently plan to meet the present emergency. Teachers receive better salaries, have better

That is what makes the Association strong

tenure regulations, retirement allowances, and general teaching conditions, and the public has better schools because of the strength of state and national education associations.

Same recognition to each group in the profession

The fact that the Association gave the classroom teacher the same recognition that it gave to teachers on other levels of the profession, gave her added prestige in the community and resulted in much better work in the school. The fact that the Association held to democratic principles in its pronouncements and in its own organization and work during the period of reconstruction, has aided in popularizing and making more permanent the American ideals of democracy. These principles should now be upheld not only by 200,000 but by 500,000 members of the profession.

Group thinking important

It is not for us to say how business and industry shall be organized. We cannot afford to waste our energies in fighting mergers, combinations, and the like after society has actually accepted and installed the new system. It becomes our duty to fit education into these changed conditions and to see that it meets the new needs. How shall we attempt to do this? Let us answer—by organizing so that we can have the advantage of the best thought of our educational economists, sociologists, and other great thinkers; by providing a plan whereby every teacher and every state and local association can focus effort on the problems of the profession; and by providing ways of giving information to the public and ways for carrying out workable plans.

Suggestions and recommendations

Shall we ask the National Council of Education to devote itself to the problems involved or shall we create another Emergency Commission? Should not each state have a similar council or commission? Should not these commissions arrange for the closest possible cooperation with the Office of Education and with the state departments? Should not the help of the American Council on Education and of other outside agencies be solicited? Are we not ready to back the findings of the commission by a membership of half a million? In order to lose the least amount of time in organizing for this important work, it is recommended that the Representative Assembly authorize the Board of Directors, through its Executive Committee, to formulate plans and to put the same in operation. We are submitting this item in the report for the reaction of the National Council of Education.

Dealing with relationships

This new group of workers will have a still more difficult task than that of 1918. Its problems are more complicated. It must be made up of the best minds in the profession. Remember that in this new emergency we are not to deal with problems of method so much as with large relationships and with questions fundamental in establishing ideals and factors that will make for quality in citizenship just ahead.

Double the Membership in 1931

Due to economic conditions there is all at once an oversupply of teachers, an over-supply of lawyers, bank cashiers, plumbers, carpenters, and of all other labor. Under this situation it is only possible to keep salaries on higher levels by the stabilizing force of organization. Of course there will be a readjustment to meet the new situation. In this readjustment organization is what counts. Salaries in your state are much better because of your efficient state association and because of the strength which comes to it from a powerful national association.

Organization a stabilizing force

We must not sound an alarm, yet we cannot deny that it will require all the strength that can be mustered to prevent setbacks in the schools. We had an enrolment of 205,000 members in the N. E. A. last year which represents about 20 percent of the teachers of the nation. We are proud of the professional spirit which gives this remarkably large enrolment. But if we needed 205,000 last year and the year before, we need the power of double that enrolment now that we are in the stream of a new set of conditions and movements.

Strength of numbers to prevent setbacks

A few members say that owing to conditions they are not renewing their memberships this year. They cannot spare the membership fee. That is a short-sighted policy. These members do not realize that now more than ever before is the time when the $2 fee gives results. Every one in the profession will lose unless we give the greatest possible strength to the arm of the organized profession at the present moment. In the case of life membership there was a fifty percent growth in a year. That gives the association a new home. It adds strength to the organization. How would you like to join in an effort to more than double the active membership and to let the slogan be 500,000 members by July 4, 1931?

500,000 by July 4, 1931 the slogan

Retirement Allowances

The Association felt that if it were to advocate retirement allowances for teachers, it should show its good faith by providing a plan for its own headquarters staff. Four years ago it adopted an uptodate plan and one which has been accepted as a model by colleges and by other organizations. It does for the members of the staff just what a good retirement plan does for teachers in a system of schools. It makes them contented and happy. It means that they do more work and better work. It does away with the fear that in old age, in sickness, or in permanent disability one may become a burden on friends or on society. One member is now on the permanent disability list and receives $81 a month. The staff is grateful to the Association for the plan.

Retirement allowance for staff

The teachers of the nation are grateful for this example and for the Association's work for retirement plans for colleges, city school systems, and for the states. There are still thousands of teachers leaving the profession because of old age or disability with no means of their own and with no retirement allowances within their reach. Could you read the letters which we receive from these finest of teachers whose forty or fifty years work have ended and who are in charitable places, cared for by friends, or doing housework to pay their board, you could not keep back the tears. Is it possible that there are superintendents and teachers who are opposed to retirement allowances? If so, let us beg them to, at least, cease their opposition and let the rest of us push the plan with all our might to the end that within a few years, all members of the profession may have the advantages of retirement allowances, no less generous than those which are provided for officers retiring from the army, the navy, or other forms of public service.

Thousands without retirement allowance

When a railroad or a factory all at once lets out a large block of its employees; when a bank merges and drops out twenty-five percent of its employees without notice; and when a school system because of the whim of a new board member, economizes by dismissing on short notice a number of its faithful teachers, the public shrugs its shoulders and says, "It should not be so." Tenure regulations and retirement allowances in business and in the schools are lessening that outrage to faithful workers and are perhaps pointing the way to a more complete solution of such problems.

It should not be so

The Advisory Committee

There is no department of education but there are numerous divisions and bureaus in the various departments that administer the educational projects of the Government. The activities and authority of divisions overlap and create confusion in the states. In order to find a remedy for the situation and to determine a wise plan of procedure for the Government in the adminstration of education, an advisory committee has been appointed by Secretary Wilbur of the Department of the Interior on the advice of President Hoover. The committee of fifty-two includes some of the best thinkers and experts in the nation. It is now making a very careful study of all questions involved. When its report is made it will be backed up by a body of facts which will give the nation confidence in its recommendations. This is one of the studies being made under the authorization of President Hoover to aid Congress and the President in deciding on policies of procedure in handling the larger issues before the people and the Government. The appointment of the Advisory Committee is the most important step in education since the time of Horace Mann.

An advanced step in education

Child Health and Protection

The White House Conference

In the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, President Hoover has drawn together representatives of diverse groups which are concerned with every phase of child welfare. This undertaking is of the utmost importance to teachers in the schools. For the first time in history outside of war there have been brought into working cooperation on a gigantic scale powerful and influential forces for the achievement of a common end. As the work of the White House Conference develops, its findings will furnish the basis for many improvements in education. The National Education Association may well be proud of the part which its leaders are taking in this great movement on behalf of the child.

The Protective Amendment

Conserving the childhood of America

Horace Mann saw the devastating effects of drinking. He saw the children of drunken fathers hungry and in rags. Throughout his life he never missed an opportunity to fight this weakness of the human race. The National Education Association has, through its resolutions and through the efforts of its great leaders, continued the plea for the rights of the child rather than to encourage "personal liberty" habits for adults. The teachers of the nation have it in their power to lift this question, at the present time, from the sordid, petty, and irritating atmosphere, into which it has been dragged by selfish interests, to a new plane of kindliness and consideration for the rights of children who have most at stake. Do not forget the accidents on the railroads before the companies laid off drinking engineers. Think of free drinking for today in its relation to auto traffic and air traffic.

Wishful thinking

There are a few citizens of this country who advocate that the United States Government should go into the liquor business. Have they forgotten the corrupting influence of liquor on government from time immemorial? Do they wish this great government to form an alliance between the forces of selfishness and the underworld? Are they unwilling that the outlawry of alcohol shall have a fair trial of twenty-five years? Are they not engaged in wishful thinking from which they hope to reap some special advantage or notoriety?

The Enrichment of Adult Life

The following letter was sent out June 2 by the Secretary to members of the national and state commissions on the Enrichment of Adult Life:

"At the request of Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle, president of the Association, I am writing you concerning the work of the national and state commissions on the Enrichment of Adult Life under the direction of the Department of Adult Education. The work ahead is fundamental and far-reaching in its value on the lives of people. It calls for the best thought of our membership. As one observes the mass movements of our people, he cannot fail to be impressed with the great need of concerted action in laying foundations for the enrichment of life. Enriched human lives should be the fruits of civilization. There has been some delay but a beginning has been made. The commissions can meet during the early fall months and organize for effective work. There are large numbers of our people interested in promoting the movement and still greater numbers interested in receiving the help which is promised. Have you investigated to determine whether the thought of using the extra or leisure hours for the improvement of life would appeal to those who now have the shorter hours of labor and the shorter week?

Enriched lives the fruits of civilization

"Not long ago I sought the reaction of a plumber. I let him know that we would investigate to learn the wholesome forms of recreation of members of his order, the types of entertainment that mean most to them, the literature they like, the gardening that is done, etc. I said we would try to find the best ways for the improvement and enrichment of life actually in use. I explained that we hoped to work out suggestions to reach all members through the officers of organizations and in other ways. This man showed interest in the movement. Later he called to see what had been worked out. He had as fine a wife as ever lived, he said, and they were proud of their children but they had formed the habit of going, after work, where the best time could be had. His boy of eight had recently in anger swore a streak and used vulgar language. That incident together with my suggestions had set him and his wife to thinking. They were beginning to attend better entertainments, to go out to see birds and flowers, to read good books. Their children enjoyed all of this. Some of his associates were interested. Of course this family is safe whether we provide suggestions or not. It will influence a score of other families. After all, that is the biggest part of this work for the enrichment of adult life. Try it out and let me know the results of your experiments. I am looking ahead with great interest to what we can do in the year 1930-31. What an improvement in social conditions will follow. Think of its effect on citizenship. Think of the help it will afford in the ethical, moral, and religious training of children. The next time I write I shall be able to provide you with outlines and plans."

You can do this

A chance to render service

More or Less Professional

There are more than twice as many college professors who are members of the Association as in 1920, but the Association is not getting the help from college faculties which it should have, and professors are not getting the inspiration and help from the Association that they are entitled to. It is suggested that the Executive Committee and the National Council give particular attention to the matter of bringing this high type of thinkers into closer touch with the work and activities of the Association and that arrangements be made for a still more effective cooperation with all college associations.

Better college contacts

The Association has the goodwill and the hearty cooperation of all leading educational and welfare organizations. The development of these cooperative relationships has reached the point where the secretary and the staff can no longer make the contacts that the importance of the work demands. Much of the work can still be done by the headquarters staff. But, in order to get the best results, it would seem to be advisable to also call on leaders in the field for help. Would it not be well for the president and secretary to be directed to work out plans and to proceed in the improvement of cooperative relations with other organizations?

Cooperation with other agencies

The Association is for all schools and colleges, public and private. Are you surprised when you are told that there are three times as many N. E. A. members among the private schools as in 1920? The question of a Department of Teachers of Private Schools has been considered but each time the view has been expressed that such an arrangement would not be satisfactory to private schools. But the fact that some still have the feeling that the Association is not for them, means that we should look into the matter, and see that the needs of private schools are cared for properly. This question might well come before the National Council of Education.

Attention to needs of private schools

There is a near breakdown in the rural schools in many places because of the continual flow of wealth from the farm, the village, and the state to a few centers. The rapid increase of this stream of profits has, during the last year, caused greater apprehension than ever before. What we say does not apply to rural schools alone but to all schools in large rural areas covering states and entire regions.

The rural situation

The Association has not been actively supporting the policy of government subsidies but how are you going to get a portion of the taxes on this wealth back to the source unless it is done by means of federal subsidies? The best minds of this nation have, after careful study, reached the conclusion that subsidies are necessary in order to meet the new conditions. In the past, wealth was more evenly distributed and profits were, as a rule, used for local improvement. Is it not time in the light of facts for the Association to advocate subsidies by the federal government for the same reason that the state is forced to vote subsidies, that is, for the purpose of equalizing educational opportunity?

Subsidies to equalize educational opportunity

The stronger the state—the stronger the nation

The relations between the state associations and the N. E. A. are much the same as between the state governments and that of the United States. Naturally somewhat similar problems develop. The stronger the state associations the stronger the N. E. A. and the stronger the N. E. A. the stronger the state associations. The interests of each are woven into the interests of the other. While there are unsolved and untouched problems that at times appear to be serious, with the more perfect understanding between the leaders in the state and nation a way out of present difficulties will soon be found. In the meantime, with each helping the other, both types of organization are growing more powerful in handling the problems of the profession and of education.

Who are the big men and women of today?

We recall that at the time when Commissioner Harris, Nicholas Murray Butler, J. M. Greenwood, Aaron Gove, Nathan Sheaffer, Charles W. Eliot, and David Starr Jordan were active in the work of the National Education Association, of hearing outstanding men express regret that we did not have the great leaders that we had had twenty years earlier. We often now hear an expression of regret that we do not have the big men and women in the profession that we had in 1900. In other words we have just begun to realize that some of the leaders of twenty-five years ago were giants. Shall we not likewise in 1950 point back with pride to the big men and women of 1925-30? But shall we not again hear that "there are no longer real leaders in the profession?" Who would even yet want to say that at the time of Harris we had anybody equal to Henry Barnard or Horace Mann, or at the present time who would be able to pick out a W. T. Harris? But whether we have leaders whose names are to stand out in history or not, we do have men and women of energy, ability, and vision who are guiding in laying exceedingly important foundations for education and for the profession in the years immediately ahead. Perhaps some of these may later be rated high for outstanding service and achievements.

The Giant Redwood Tree

Giant Redwood tree

A few years ago the Department of the Interior received a section of the giant Redwood tree from the Sequoia forest. Since it was too large and too heavy to be installed in the Department building, Secretary Work was kind enough to lend it to the Association. It has been placed in a beautiful setting in front of the Sixteenth Street entrance to the headquarters building, mounted at an angle for the accommodation of Washington citizens and visitors who pass along Sixteenth Street, where it is of interest to hundreds of people every day. This section, ten feet in diameter, was cut seventy feet above the base. At the base the tree was 18 feet in diameter. Its age, 1995 years, was easily gotten by counting the rings of growth under a magnifying glass. On either side of the huge section is a seedling of the same kind of tree. They withstood last winter and both are growing rapidly this summer.

Pleases visitors

Visitors are sometimes informed that, if they will return 2000 years later, they will see here two giant redwood trees, each eighteen feet in diameter. The hedge surrounding the tree, the other evergreens, and the flowers add to the approach. Many visitors write down the history of the tree as provided for their information. The angle of the section leads the eyes up to the "National Education Association" just over the entrance to the building. It is of particular interest to the thousands of high-school students that visit Washington each year.

Headquarters Efficiency

Love of work and success

Just as each of the nine directors takes pride in the fine spirit in his division staff, the secretary takes pride in referring to the remarkably fine spirit of the staff as a whole. A few years ago at a meeting of efficiency experts in New York City the fact was brought out that the two chief elements for success in any association or establishment were efficiency in organization and group spirit or love of work. The National Education Association was given as one of the best known examples of group understanding and cooperation. It was stated that our organization rated high in efficiency, and that the spirit which counted for most in success was not excelled elsewhere. Trying to live up to that reputation helps to keep the work on a high plane.

SECOND LIFE MEMBERSHIP DINNER

This occasion was a highlight of the convention. The ballroom at the Neil House was filled to capacity. Dr. Walter R. Siders made a brief explanation of the new headquarters building made possible through the funds received from life memberships. He illustrated his talk with the printed leaflet which was in the hand of each person present.

Secretary Crabtree acted as toastmaster and aside from calling the roll of states for a report of progress he called upon numerous other persons for impromptu remarks. Forty-seven persons were presented with life memberships during the course of the roll call.

The delegation from Hawaii sang several of their melodies in their own inimitable manner at the close of the dinner.

The following quotation from the booklet containing a list of life members and presented to each person present reflects the general attitude concerning what the life membership dinner will come to mean:

> The first life membership dinner was held last year at the Atlanta Convention and it added much to the fine program of that meeting. As a result, life members have looked forward to this dinner with eager anticipation. The program for this occasion, the menu, the picture of the new building, together with a list of life members are contained within these covers. We predict that the life membership dinner will hereafter be looked upon as one of the leading features of the annual convention.

LAYING THE CORNERSTONE OF THE NEW BUILDING

News Story

The cornerstone of the National Education Association's new headquarters office building, now being erected at Sixteenth and M Streets, Northwest, Washington, D. C., was laid on July 25. The ceremonies were conducted under the auspices of the Grand Lodge of Free and Accepted Masons of the District of Columbia with Fred C. Cook, Deputy Grand Master, officiating for the Grand Lodge. President Joseph Rosier, State Teachers College, Fairmont, West Virginia, presided. Addresses were made by Dr. Walter R. Siders, chairman of the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association; Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle, first vicepresident of the National Education Association; Superintendent Joseph H. Saunders, Newport News, Virginia, a member of the Board of Trustees; and United States Commissioner of Education, William John Cooper.

The rapid completion of the plans for the new headquarters building is largely due to the painstaking efforts of Dr. Walter R. Siders, chairman of the Board of Trustees, and Superintendent Joseph H. Saunders, Newport News, Virginia, who represent the Board of Trustees on the building committee.

Dr. Walter R. Siders, who is field secretary for the World Federation of Education Associations, has devoted much of his time during 1930 to the problems of financing the new building. His long experience as a superintendent of schools in carrying out building programs has been very valuable to the Association in planning an office building which is within the means of the organization and which affords effective space for carrying on the Association's activities. Dr. Siders has spent weeks at a time during the year at headquarters advising with architects and supervising building plans. Superintendent Saunders has made many trips to Washington for the same purpose.

A trowel used by George Washington in laying the cornerstone of the National Capitol in 1793 was used by Deputy Grand Master Cook in carrying out the cornerstone laying ritual of the Masonic Lodge.

The new building, to be completed next February, will make possible the expansion of the headquarters staff of the National Education Association which the rapid growth of the organization has made necessary. Membership in the organization has now passed the 200,000 mark. It is the largest professional organization in the world. Its publications are found in every college of education and important library.

Materials Placed in Cornerstone

In the cornerstone were placed the Holy Bible, United States Flag, signature cards of life members prepared for the cornerstone, list of officers of N. E. A. for 1930-31, list of members of headquarters staff and pictures; pictures of the Executive Committee, Board of Trustees, State Directors, State Superintendents, Department

Presidents, Budget Committee, Fulltime Secretaries of State Education Associations, Staff of United States Office of Education.

The following publications were also included: Who's Who in the Profession, The Secretary's Report—1930, Official Manual for Delegates—1930, Report of the Budget Committee—1930-31, Finances and Building—1930, Annual Volume of Proceedings for 1929-30, Journals of the National Education Association for May and June—1930, Research Bulletins—1930, Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence—1930, Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals—1930, Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers—1930, Program and Addresses at laying of cornerstone, Proceedings of the World Federation of Education Associations—1927, Childhood Education—Journal of the International Kindergarten Union, A Bill to Create a Department of Education, Hearings of the Education Bill—1924, Bylaws and Information, Proceedings of National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Official Programs of National Education Association Convention, Columbus, Ohio, June 29-July 4, 1930, and Department of Superintendence Convention, Atlantic City, N. J., February 22-27, 1930; United States Daily, July 25, 1930; The Washington Post, July 25, 1930; The Washington Herald, July 25, 1930; The Evening Star, July 24, 1930.

Special reports of state superintendents of public instruction, secretaries of state teachers associations, presidents of departments, and chairmen of committees were included; and Masonic material as follows: Proceedings of Grand Lodge F. & A. M. of District of Columbia, 1929; Masonic Calendar of District of Columbia, 1929; Masonic Code of 1929.

LIFE MEMBERSHIP AND THE NEW BUILDING

JOSEPH H. SAUNDERS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEWPORT NEWS, VA.

During the World War we learned that an address need not be more than four minutes long if the speaker confined himself to the essential elements of his theme. I have endeavored to profit by that lesson and whatever may be the defects of my speech it will have the merit of brevity.

On this inspiring and auspicious occasion it seems to me that I can add nothing of value to the ideas and sentiments so well and so beautifully expressed by those who have preceded me on this program, and yet as one who has had some small part in this great undertaking and achievement I am proud to add my voice in commendation of those who have made possible this splendid building, the connerstone of which we are now laying.

The National Education Association has a membership in excess of 200,000. The majority of these are classroom teachers representing every city, town, village, hamlet, and rural district in each of the several states and territories that compose our national union. They form the very backbone of our nation and on their courage and their selfsacrifice depends the future stability of our government and the future prosperity, happiness, and welfare of our people.

Many of these teachers labor for a wage that is insufficient to provide the bare necessities of life and must eke out an existence through partime employment in other occupations. Yet so great is their love for the welfare of the childhood of America and their appreciation of the service which this organization renders in promoting that welfare they freely and voluntarily contribute of their slender means to its support. "Greater love hath no man than this that he lay down his life for his fellow man."

In 1921, the Association adopted the plan for life membership in the Association, and in the following year, 1922, elected its first life members. Now, 3754 of its more than 200,000 members have become life members of the Association. This group also represents each state and territory in the Union from two in Alaska, the territory with the smallest life membership, eight in the Virgin Isles, eighteen in Porto Rico, nineteen in the Philippines, one hundred and thirty-four in Hawaii to three hundred twenty-nine in Ohio, the state with the largest membership. The teachers of foreign countries are becoming interested and Canada, Japan, Panama, and Syria each have one life member.

This building is being constructed with the fees paid by the life members. Each life member pays into the permanent fund of the Association the sum of one hundred dollars. In many cases this represents a great sacrifice on the part of the teacher securing the life membership. Said one teacher at the Second Life Membership Dinner held at Columbus, Ohio, on June 30, "I did not know where I was going to get the money to pay for my life membership, but I had faith that it would come and so I sent in my application." It is this faith in the organization and its purposes that makes possible this building and gives to our Association its power and prestige. Of the total of $375,400 due from life members more than half has been paid, and no difficulty has thus far been experienced in collecting any part of it.

The teachers of the United States who are life members of the National Education Association realize that teaching autocratically directed could probably change our national ideals within a generation. They are a patriotic group and desire only to create in the minds of their pupils a public opinion that is intelligent, honest, selfcontrolled, and responsive to democracy's highest ideals. They also realize that only through group action can they achieve this desired result as well as achieve their own personal desires for professional growth and the material welfare of those engaged in the occupation of teaching.

Group action must be organized and directed, officials and trained experts are essential to devise and execute plans, selected information must be broadcast to those in the field, equipment is required, adequate headquarters must be provided and maintained, and advantage must be taken of every contributing social factor.

Fully understanding those things the life members rejoice in supplying from their slender store the means to secure this headquarters building, the next essential step in our program of a unified profession at work upon its problems. To the life membership is largely due this miracle, now being wrought in steel and stone, this consummation devoutly to be wished and gloriously being realized.

In a city founded by and dedicated to our first great President, it is eminently fitting that we should follow the advice given us in his Farewell Address when he said:

"Promote, then, as an object of primary importance institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened."

This building is constructed primarily for the purpose of enlightening public opinion in order that we may, in the words of Webster, preserve and perpetuate our free institutions. We dedicate this building as a lighthouse of knowledge founded upon the rock of unselfish patriotic service and may its beneficent beams dispel from the borders of our land the baleful shadows of ignorance, superstition, fear, intolerance, and hate. To the life membership! All Hail!

THE CORNERSTONE AND THE MEMBERSHIP

E. RUTH PYRTLE, FIRST VICEPRESIDENT, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, LINCOLN, NEBR.

Our President, Dr. Willis A. Sutton of Atlanta, Georgia, regrets that important engagements prevent his being present on this great occasion. He requests me to represent him, and to speak from the standpoint of the membership of the Association. First, I wish to express my personal regret that Dr. Sutton could not be here himself to participate in these exercises, to meet the members and officers of the Grand Lodge of the District of Columbia, and to greet our distinguished guests who are on the platform and in the audience. He is not only President of the National Education Association, but he is one of the most outstanding educational leaders in the nation.

It is with pride that I speak for the membership of this organization, for after all the development of the profession is not due to the efforts of national leaders so much as it is to the teachers, principals, and superintendents who are laying the foundations in every community in the nation. It is this community work and leadership that within a decade has resulted in a growth in membership from 10,000 to 205,000. It is this work at home that gives the honor roll of 100 percent schools which stabilizes the Association and which places the teaching profession on a more permanent basis and which gives it a place with other recognized professions.

Gentlemen of the Grand Lodge, you are laying the cornerstone of a building dedicated to the service of education and welfare—a building which marks an epoch in education in the United States. It marks the time when democracy in education has taken the place of theories of foreign origin. Up to this time plans and policies from European nations have been in vogue—adapted, of course, as nearly as possible to meet American needs. But gradually certain American ideals have taken definite form. A great system of education has been evolved. European nations are already beginning to borrow from us as we formerly borrowed from them.

The date of laying this cornerstone marks an important achievement. For years the National Education Association has urged that education have the same recognition that has been given to commerce and to agriculture through federal departments with secretaries in the President's cabinet. The Association has also urged that our system of state and federal aid should be readjusted to meet the requirements of the new economic and social conditions of today. These are ideals for which you too have stood. The pressing need on the part of the nation's children has found a sympathetic response in your hearts. After the most thorough study the best minds in the nation are coming to agree upon this view. Conditions in education are no less grave and difficult than conditions in industry and business. The gravity of the situation should lead the Congress and the President of the United States to hasten the creation of a Department of Education and thus to place the government squarely behind a movement fundamental to the general welfare and to the highest type of citizenship.

The Federal Government should help to work out the great American ideal of equality of opportunity. It should strive for a high level of intelligence rather than to follow the aristocratic plan of centering on the training of potential leaders. A high level of intelligence among our people means much more than a lower level could mean, even though it might have high peaks of leadership here and there.

Let every brick, let every piece of iron and steel in this building, let the very mortar in which this cornerstone is set, be charged with the spirit of democracy and with the principle of equality of opportunity for all youth. May not the use in the ceremonies today of the famous gavel which George Washington himself used, which has helped to lay the cornerstones of the United States Capitol, of the Washington Monument, and of the Lincoln Memorial, lend significance to this occasion. May not the use of this George Washington trowel in spreading the mortar about this foundation stone, serve to dedicate this building to the ideals of education advocated by Washington, Jefferson, and Lincoln—ideals now held sacred by the membership of the National Education Association and by the other organizations represented in this audience. As this building is dedicated to these American ideals, may the lives of the headquarters staff and the lives of teachers everywhere, be consecrated anew to the greatest of human services—the education and inspiration of youth to live for the cause of democracy and human wellbeing.

CORNERSTONES

WILLIAM JOHN COOPER, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

In this vast universe man is the only creature, so far as we know, which takes cognizance of the passage of time or makes any effort to fathom the meaning of the world and to interpret the significance of events. This thought has come to me on more than one occasion when in an audience listening to some eminent lecturer on astronomy I have heard someone in my vicinity remark in an aside to his neighbor, "It makes one feel very insignificant, doesn't it?" I am frank to confess that when I consider the vastness of the universe and reflect on the marvelous order of creation, I also would join the psalmist in exclaiming, "What is man that Thou art mindful of him or the son of man that Thou regardest him!" Shortly, however, I find myself trying to understand it all, endeavoring to follow the theories of Eddington, who would have us believe that the universe, like an eight-day clock in the middle of the week, is inevitably running down; or grappling with Millikan's hypothesis that out in inter-stellar space atoms are being reborn. Then my wonder shifts from the universe about me to that peculiar capacity of man contrasted with other creatures for whom all is void and without meaning. What is after all that something in man which we term "mind"—curious, investigative, and reflexive—the one thing in the whole order of created things which seems capable of giving meaning to the rest? Psychologists dispute the methods of its functioning, philosophers speculate as to its nature, and theologians believe they find in it the spark of divinity. In common with electricity, however, it defies exact definition or scientific analysis. And like electricity also it certifies its presence by its works.

Just as our present comforts and luxuries are due in large part to the harnessing and directing of that force which we call electricity, so those cultural elements which we considered the choicest flowers of civilization have come from disciplining and directing those forces in man which we vaguely term the mind. In each case progress has been due primarily to those who have done the harnessing or disciplining and the directing. In the one instance we term them engineers, in the other we call them teachers. Both have ample reason for pride in their work; both are entitled to popular esteem, and to adequate financial return for their service.

Engineers and teachers find themselves confronted with quite similar problems; both desire to advance the cause for which they work; both need to maintain the professional contacts which will enable them to meet and receive inspiration from their colleagues who have rendered outstanding service; and both must consider their relations to other groups. To achieve these ends, both have found conventions profitable and permanent organization essential. The teacher, however, has more to gain from organization than have members of the engineering and other professions.

The teacher in his daily routine works with children or adolescents, receiving the enthusiasm of youth, but missing the mental stimulation of contact with colleagues at work on a common problem and with other adults who carry on the work of the world. In rural areas, especially, the teacher works in an isolation mentally deadening. For these disadvantages the organization with its conventions and its journals are partial relief.

Moreover, the teacher more than any other professional practitioner, works in a type of service, which, to the casual onlooker, does not produce a marketable commodity. When the electrical engineer produces an appliance which has a wide sale his right to a reasonable percent of the proceeds is universally recognized. When he improves a device by increasing its efficiency or reducing the cost of manufacture, this service is likewise measured in terms of dollars and cents. And his employer, who is usually an individual fully conversant with the merchandising of products, records this service in the paycheck. For the teacher, however, who may make an individual capable of serving at all, or who may improve the quality of service which the individual renders, there is no recognized cash reward. No method of cost accounting distinguishes between the mental equipment which makes his service possible and such personal qualities as persistence, energy, and loyalty, which also enter into the accomplishment of the workers.

Moreover, the teacher's employer is the public and the people collectively usually take action under emotional stress. When a President is assassinated by a disappointed office seeker, the public will act to eliminate political spoils. Should a loyal teacher actually starve to death, doubtless salaries of colleagues would be promptly raised. Price fluctuations, which influence the cost of living, investment in professional education, political interference with service and tenure, periods of disability, including old age retirement, are insistent factors in the life of a teacher. The solution of all these problems consists in fair conditions of tenure and reasonable reward for service rendered. None of them have any appeal to the emotion of the general public. Yet it is possible in every case to enlighten the people. But what is everybody's business is nobody's concern and a single individual cannot raise such issues for he would possess neither the time nor the facts. Should he even attempt it, he would appear to some a selfseeker and to others a mendicant.

Public sentiment must be expressed through lay agents, called schoolboards, trustees, or committees, consisting of individuals who serve without pay and are necessarily engrossed in their own personal affairs. These agents are ready to respond to public opinion when it has been formed. The public needs to be made aware not only of the service which the teacher renders but must be assisted to distinguish good service from mediocre or poor service. None can do this as well as an organization which maintains a headquarters and issues an organ to advocate with vigor the thing which should be done. Organization of a body of more than three-fourths of a million persons scattered over a vast continent is difficult to accomplish. But the National Education Association represents just such an achievement. Its meetings furnish the occasion for professional inspiration and instruction and for action designed to advance, not the personal interests of individuals, but the profession as a whole.

We assemble today to lay the cornerstone of the new headquarters of this great professional organization in the nation's capital. Through *The Journal* the ideals of teachers are crystalized, professional service is interpreted to the public, and programs of action are explained. To conduct the business of an organization of nearly a quarter million members a skilled headquarters staff is required and this staff must have a suitable place to work. These ceremonies today are symbolic; they record achievement and they register aspiration. The workmen who have toiled here for several weeks have constructed a material foundation both strong and deep. The materials for the firm foundation of a great professional organization have been gathered by those who have served this association for more than half a century, and have been cemented together by presidents and secretaries too numerous for me to mention by name. This stone becomes in fact an important element in a great building. But may it also symbolize the cornerstone in a great organized profession—the headquarters staff of skilled workers, for Secretary Crabtree and his splendid staff are the real cornestone in the teaching profession!

FUNCTIONS OF PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP

WALTER R. SIDERS, CHAIRMAN, N. E. A. BOARD OF TRUSTEES,
MONTCLAIR, N. J.

The settlement of this new land made possible an experiment in government. Since feudal times, the discontent of the common man had risen from murmurs to a full voiced demand for his rights. America afforded the opportunity. After our colonial experience we were ready to go farther than the rights of the common man. We founded a government upon the common rights of all men, making no provision for class distinctions.

America is not so much a place as an ideal—the ideal being equal rights and equal opportunities to every individual according to his abilities. While our rich natural resources have helped make us great, I believe our Ideal would have made us a great nation in any other place where the climate is not inhospitable.

This American Ideal cannot be realized without an educated citizenry, without such an education as will enable every citizen to make himself the best possible.

While schools were among our first institutions, and though education has been our watchword, such full and complete education as is required by our American Ideal has not yet fully permeated the consciousness of all our people, consequently equal educational opportunity for every child in America is one of the major aims of this National Education Association.

It is not known who the children are, nor where the children live who are the potential leaders of tomorrow. So it is incumbent upon the nation to provide equal educational opportunity to all of its future citizens, and to insure by compulsory attendance, if necessary, that each person is developed to his maximum usefulness.

"The success of the schools is the success of America," is a pronouncement of Harvard University. Our belief in education, and our increasing provision for education, is witnessed by the fact that we have more young people in our secondary schools than there are in the secondary schools of Europe. We have more young people in our colleges and universities than there are in the higher institutions of the other five leading powers of the world. But we have not attained our ideal until the children of remote places have opportunities equal to those of the wealthy centers, until equal provision is made for all regardless of race or color, until we have every citizen so selfdirected and dynamically useful that he will not become a burden to society.

We have already attained the stage where the average American produces five times as much wealth as it costs to raise and educate him to the age of eighteen. Increasing our education will increase this multiple. "The greatest wealth of a nation is education diffused among its people." Within the lifetime of my generation Oklahoma has been made a great state with two and one-half million people provided with all the accessories of civilization. These people could abandon that state and with an equal environment build another great state in twenty years.

It is noteworthy that the professions have turned their attention to seeking the probable and actual causes that produce ill effects. The health program is giving us healthier, happier, longer, and more useful lives. The directive counsellor is becoming more important than the defensive lawyer, the church is finding right living and wholesome recreation for its parishioners more effective than repression through fear. Even the military forces are being used in measures other than offensive and defensive. The positive side of things is the thought of the age.

While the school is, as John Dewey has said, but a phase of the social movement of the race and cannot, perhaps, assume the leadership of the race, yet it is incumbent upon educators to analyze the ideals and social movement of the day, to understand the demands of industry and commerce and to synthesize an educational procedure which will accomplish what the day and generation is striving to realize. Education can never be static in its program. It must be dynamically functioning as discovery and progress demand.

When this Association set itself seriously to these tasks and appointed a Commission on the Reorganization of Education during and after the War, when the masterful reports of that Commission pointed out fundamental weaknesses in education and pointed out the foundational needs if education is to meet the American ideal, they had rendered a report which met with instant recognition as touching the vital spots in our national life.

This Association adopted those reports as its platform, to wit: (1) A well-trained teacher in every school; (2) the equalization of educational opportunity; (3) preservation of health and the conservation of national vitality; (4) the Americanization of the foreign born; and (5) the removal of illiteracy.

The profession rallied to these standards. The growth in membership was amazing. It grew from less than 10,000 in 1918 to 205,000 in 1930, on January 1. This growth made it necessary for the Association to acquire buildings for its work. This present building is an eloquent testimonial of the belief of the profession in its mission. This property of $540,000 has been provided from money paid in by the teaching profession. All the activities of the Association are paid by the membership fees. No outside moneys have aided us. The building is a monument to the belief of the teachers of America that education can and will accomplish the American Ideal.

When the time comes this building will be dedicated to the youth of America. The activities here centered should stream forth as a beacon light, lighting up the dark places and enabling the people to find their way to the fruition of the American Ideal. I wish it were possible to emblazon on this building in light what was written by Dante, "Give the people light and they will find the way."

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY[1]

MARY DAVIDSON BRADFORD, KENOSHA, WIS., *Chairman*

At the meeting of the National Education Association at Asbury Park twenty-five years ago, Theodore Roosevelt, then President of the United States, in an address before the Assembly, paid a memorable tribute to teachers. What this great man said on that occasion seems appropriate to quote now when we are honoring, in a brief report, those who have, during the past year, finished their work in the field of education. He said:

> I am particularly pleased to have the opportunity of addressing this Association, because in all this democratic land there is no more genuinely democratic body than this; for here each member meets every other member as his peer, without regard to whether he is president of one of the great universities or the newest recruit in that high and honorable profession which has in its charge the upbringing of the boys and girls who in a few years will be engaged in settling the destinies of this nation. It is not too much to say that the most characteristic work of the Republic is that done by the teachers; for whatever our shortcomings as a nation may be—and we have certain shortcomings—we have at least firmly grasped the fact that we cannot do our part in the difficult and all important work of self-government, that we cannot rule and govern ourselves, unless we approach the task with developed minds, and with that which counts for more, even, than developed minds—with trained characters.
>
> You teachers, and it is a mere truism to say this, make the whole world your

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[1] Adopted by the Representative Assembly, July 3.

> debtors, and of you it can be said, as it can be said of no other profession save the profession of the ministers of the Gospel themselves, if you teachers did not do your work well, this Republic would not outlast the span of a generation. Moreover, as an incident to your avowed work, . . . You furnish a common training and common ideals for the children of all the mixed peoples, who are here being fused into one nationality.

These are the words of the great statesman-soldier, Theodore Roosevelt, spoken in 1905. Such an estimate as this of the importance of the teacher to national welfare and progress inspires renewed devotion in the living to the great work of the national committee which I represent. The purpose of the committee is to take note of those whom death has removed from the great social service army, which, according to the words just quoted, constitutes the first line of defense for our nation, and to do them the honor of having their names placed in the permanent necrology records of this organization. No person was ever honored for what he received. Honor has been the reward for what he gave. The realities of life are not measured in dollars and cents.

The reports received from thirty-nine of the forty-eight states and from the Territory of Hawaii and Porto Rico contain the names of upwards of one thousand men and women who, since the last report was made, have joined the innumerable throng.

Among these names are those of six presidents of colleges, and as many deans in colleges and universities. Many cities have lost the superintendents of their public school systems, and many counties their educational leaders.

Reports frequently included copies of resolutions, newspaper articles, obituary notices, or personal tributes, all expressive of the esteem in which these men and women were held, and, incidentally, revealing the deeds or characteristics which elicit public love and respect. All this seems to be a tacit recognition of a great truth, which furnishes another reason for the existence of the state committees which I represent. This truth was expressed in an inimitable way by a great poet who shows us the universality of the desire to be remembered. This desire is not confined to the great and illustrious who "by storied urn or animated bust" have their memories perpetuated where "pealing anthems swell the note of praise" but manifests itself in inscriptions on the lonely tombstones which "the place of fame and elegy" supplies. This desire is common among human beings. Gray calls it "the voice of nature." You all remember the famous lines:

> For who to dumb forgetfulness a prey,
> This pleasing anxious being e'er resigned,
> Left the warm precincts of the cheerful day
> Nor cast one longing, ling'ring look behind?
>
> On some fond breast the parting soul relies,
> Some pious drops the closing eye requires;
> E'en from the tomb the voice of Nature cries,
> E'en in our ashes live their wonted fires.

In the midst of these busy days we are for a few minutes recognizing this universal human desire, we are responding to the voice of nature, and are ourselves benefited by so doing. In this widely representative delegate body, many memories arise of those whose names are on these lists, and of others whose names should be there but are not on account of the imperfection of our collection methods and agencies; and doubtless you are reminded of others than teachers whom you "have known long since and lost awhile."

In reverent memory of our departed fellowworkers and in gratitude to them for "the lives made better by their presence," I will close with a few words that seem to be appropriate for this occasion. The sentences were selected from a revered source, filled with the enduring wisdom of the ages. I ask the audience to rise while I read them:

> There are those who have left a name behind them and their remembrance is sweet.
> And there are some who have no memorial,
> But their righteousness has not been forgotten, and the glory of their work cannot be blotted out.
> Their bodies are buried in peace, but their names liveth forever more.
> The people will tell of their wisdom and the congregation will show forth their praise.
> Though a good life hath but few days, yet a good name endureth forever,
> When it is present men take example of it, and when it is gone they earnestly desire it,
> For the memorial of virtue is immortal, because it is known with God and men.

The names of the following members of the profession who have passed away during the past year have been sent to the chairman from the various states. There are probably others which have not been reported.

Alabama

Allgood, Ruby
Anderson, Grace
Armstrong, Mrs. R. O.
Boyd, John
Brakefield, Mrs. J. L.
Burren, Mrs. George
Clark, Simmie Lee
Collins, Mrs. Eva
Cox, Mary I.
Ellis, Mrs. Gene Stabler
Hays, Mildred
James, Floyd
Lester, Mrs. Ruby James
Nigg, Mrs. William R.
Ross, B. B.
Sibley, James L.
Stallsworth, Mary Goode
Weathers, Louise
Williams, Zella

California

Adams, Karl
Boren, Frank
Bull, Henry Randolph
Chaney, Samuel Marshall
Cuscaden, Callie G.
Fisher, Eleanor
Grace, Mary E.
Hanley, May Elizabeth
Hanlon, Harriet
Haskell, Ethel M.
Hoen, Bertha
Langdon, Frances Beulah
Martin, Fannie
Murdock, Mary Margaret
Preston, James T.
Prior, Elizabeth Ford
Pugsley, Elizabeth Wilson
Raybold, Irving
Richardson, Mattie
Stolz, Rose
Van Nostrand, Hazel Calder

Colorado

Andrus, Viola Coffey
Bainum, Donald
Baum, Jessie Dean
Bauserman, Nellie K.
Becker, Lillie
Bilz, Mary R.
Bonnell, Leonora
Brifey, Rose
Budin, Anna
Carter, Charles M.
Cary, Foster H.
Coil, Linnie D.
Cullen, Nellie
Dart, Helen
Dill, Helen

Dodson, Agnes
Eddy, Margaret
Egbert, Glendolia
Elliott, Agnes P.
Ervin, Anna R.
Fallas, Sophia
Haines, Mary Elizabeth
Harding, Ruby E.
Hartung, Margaret
Hellems, F. B. R.
Hopkins, Caroline D.
Hummer, Isabel M. L.
Kingsley, Perle Shale
McCulloch, Ferne
Matson, Irene
Miner, Agnes I.
O'Dea, Mary
Ormes, Manley Dayton
Parker, Irene
Parkyn, Esther
Peterson, J. A.
Phillips, H. S.
Provert, Emily
Rice, Elizabeth
Ritter, Anne Gregory
Ryan, Ruth
Satterlee, Thera H.
Sayre, Irene Parker
Shannon, Mary E.
Shutts, Daniel
Stetson, Edith
Trout, Owen Bertram
Warr, Vina L.
White, Alfred N.

Connecticut

Beach, Mrs. Annie C.
Lambert, David
Sellew, Edward B.

Florida

Benton, John Robert
Brown, Homer
Masterson, W. G.
Schuyler, E. H.
Sumner, R. Glenn

Georgia

Allen, J. P.
Close, N. B. F.
Pound, E. A.
Riser, J. H.
Sharp, J. A.
Smith, Clara
Whiteside, Mrs. Frances Smith

Territory of Hawaii

Carter, Mrs. Sue Blake
Hapai, Harriet K.
Kiilau, Mrs. Lulu
Palmer, M. Helen
Sun, Mrs. Annie Goo
Wakayama, Mrs. Asayo T.

Idaho

Clarke, Blanche

Illinois

Acton, Jessie
Allen, Gladys
Baer, William C.
Beck, John C.
Boykin, Fern Ceola
Brent, Florence A.
Brown, A. E.
Brown, J. M. D.
Bunker Helen Duty
Chadsey, C. E.
Clark, John N.
Cobelli, Carl A.
Darham, Katherine
Davis, Roland B.
Deck, Leslie
Dietz, C. L.
Doane, Letitia
Donahue, Minnie E.
Dougherty, Florence M.
Douglass, Josephine
Downing, Elva
Edwards, May L.
Ennis, Elzoria
Faust, Lyle C.
Felmley, David
Gage, Albert E.
Goldstein, Gertrude
Hess, Nellie G.
Kane, Annie
Keil, Lulu
Keith, Norman
Knowlson, Chassie
Lagerquist, Charles
Mayo, Dorothy
McReynolds, Mamie
Merrifield, Ethel
Morgan, Esther
Moriarity, Veronica C.
Mortimer, Anna M.
Mueller, Edgar
Myall, Charles A.
Neeley, Elizabeth P.
O'Malley, Mary N.
O'Neill, Teresa
Parker, Genevieve
Parker, Marilla Z.
Rosbach, Lillian
Rose, Jerry
Rothman, Eugenie
Schmidt, Moritz
Sealander, Grace Schuler
Shields, Isabel M.
Smith, Esther
St. Clair, Flora
Steven, Josephine E. M.
Terbush, Sarah
Thoren, Carl D.
Twitchell, Clarence
Uchtmann, Lillian E.
Uzzell, John U.
Warner, Rhue
Welch, Sadie
Werst, Elizabeth
White, Letha
White, Ralph
Whittlesey, Hibbard E.
Williams, Agatha
Wolfe, Kathleen I.

Indiana

Barrett, Thusnelda
Burlingame, Lillian
Chaplinger, Kate M.
Clendening, C. W.
Cook, Prudence
Curry, James
Divine, Lorenzo D.
Doerr, Anna R.
Ellis, Mary
Hetrick, Ruth
Odell, Rena M.
Ohnstead, Ella
Presser, Mary O.
Pritchard, Laura Brooks
Pruett, Melvin
Stout, Helen Garrett
Sudwarth, Emma
Tinkler, Caroline R.
Willson, Mary E.
Wilson, John W.
Yeaton, Sue H.

Iowa

Bauer, Mrs. Albert
Beyl, John Lewis
Brown, Carrie
Calkins, Glee
Carlson, Esther
Chase, C. S.
Clifford, Wesley N.
Cloyd, D. E.
Crawford, Mrs. Louise
Davis, Sara
Del Fosse, Mrs. Harriet
Edgerton, Mary Page
Fiester, S. F.
Ford, Arthur H.
Garrette, Irene
Hale, Mrs. J. H.
Hamilton, William E.
Howard, Herschel K.
Hunt, Clara A.
Johnson, Zilpha Josephine
Jones, Henry Craig
Jordan, Fannie
Julian, W. A.
Kendall, Gertrude
Kinsell, Jessie
Kratz, H. E.
McElligott, Miriam
McIntire, Mrs. A. V.
Neff, Mrs. Luella
Pease, Laura E.
Pullen, Roseltha
Ralston, Lydia J.
Reusser, Fred
Rinehart, Clara Mae
Ross, A. C.
Sawyer, Mrs. S. E. J.
Shaw, Marlowe A.
Sheets, William Leander
Sheldon, Carolina
Snyder, Joseph M.
Stamper, F. J.
Thompson, C. W.
Walster, Isa
Weems, Julius B.
Whitcomb, Selden Lincoln
Wilcox, Elmer A.
Wilson, Fannie R.
Wilton, Mrs. Lulu C.
Wollenhaupt, Ardella Amelia
Woolbert, Charles Henry
Young, Mrs. Anne

Kentucky

Booth, I. H.
Bourne, W. R.
Jayne, William L.
Stephan, L. B.

Louisiana

Black, Mrs. Ethel Ashbrook
Bonnecage, Carlotta
Bordenave, Susanne
Douglas, Alice
Dupre, Louise
Frere, G. C.
Norman, Dixie
Robertson, Frances
Woodson, Ashby

Maine

Barker, Julia E.
Bradley, Mrs. Irene Whitney
Callins, Cora
Cartland, Abbie D.
Chase, Melville E.
Clements, Edna
Cortland, Abbie D.
Cotton, Anna S.
Eastman, Myra E.
Goodwin, Sara C.
Kelley, Agnes R.
Kilby, Mary E.
Killerar, Katherine
Maddock, Lillian
Mason, Pauline C.
Steves, Irene
Turner, Mildred
Whalen, Mrs. Lura
Whipple, J. Allen

Massachusetts

Clark, Charles S.
Douglas, Frank A.
Greaney, Michael J.
Hutchins, John W.
McConkey, Bertha M.
Morrill, Charles Herbert
Sims, William Fisher
Stanton, Marion W.
Whitney, George B.

Michigan

Argubright, Charles J.
Austin, Leonard S.
Beagle, Augusta
Bessey, Bertha
Blackney, Elmer T.
Bloom, Elizabeth
Burren, Mrs. George
Cassidy, Thomas E., Jr.
Chaffee, Clark B.
Crane, Mrs. Clara
Curtis, Ralph H.
Donley, Mary E.
Flintoff, Theodore W.
Goodrich, Jesse
Hamilton, William E.
Harding, Mary Elizabeth
Herdman, Elliott K.
Hutchins, Harry Burns
Hyde, Bessie
James, Martha Bell
Kay, William J.
Kaywood, Ezetta
Kellogg, Clara
Keyworth, Mrs. Eliza
Klein, George E.
Knowlton, Laverne
Lane, Victor Hugo
Leonard, Arzelie Marie
Long, Mrs. Alice
McGuiness, Mrs. Barbara Ann
Markley, Joseph L.
Miller, Harvey E.
Nelson, Ellen Esther
Oleson, Nels
Peabody, Iris
Perry, Kenneth
Peterson, Agda
Smith, A. Hamlin
Sperr, F. W.
VanTyne, Claude
Waldorf, Nina
Ward, Verna
Winkler, Max
Winn, Margaret H.

Minnesota

Bell, Stella
Bengtsson, Lille
Carroll, Teresa
Diekmann, J. C.
Dietz, Mrs. Harriet
Eastman, Eunice
Ferguson, Carrie A.
Gilman, Glenora
Hamilton, E. N.
Hanson, Anna A.
Helliwell, Clare F.
Hertzenberg, Henry
Howard, Ethel M.
Kerr, Mary
Kilgore, Alice Rodgers
Kruger, Mrs. Ida M.
Lawrence, Anna S.
LeGro, Fanny C.
Loe, Eliza
Marshall, Anna
Morrison, Mrs. Katherine
Nelson, Ida Y.
Nutting, Mrs. Martha
Robson, Ethel

Mississippi

Fant, J. C.
Hurst, G. G.
Jackson, J. L.
Ratcliff, Mrs. Lena D.
Turner, T. A.

Missouri

Bash, Eugene H.
Bass, Robert Elwood
Begey, Nelle
Bernard, F. W.
Brewington, Thelma
Brightman, S. C.
Bruton, George
Buck, Anna
Burton, Wood P.
Civill, Helen C.
Cochran, R. M.
Cole, Emma
Coleman, Mary
Cook, Vinnie
Cosgrove, Teresa
Cox, Clara Belle
Crane, Opal
Davis, Blanchetta L.
Diekenga, Alice C.
Donovan, Anastasia
Draper, Leona
Dunnica, Lillian H.
Eckman, Otto
Fenton, Emma H.
Fox, Ellen E.
Fox, Julia Mae
Frye, Elroy E.
Gaines, Miss Foster
Gallagher, Agnes
Gentry, Ella Lee
Gideon, T. E.
Godron, Adolphine
Goodall, Margaret M.
Greenwood, Mrs. J. M.
Halley, Mary Belle
Hammon, Mary
Heskett, Kathleen
Hibbard, H. W.
Hidey, Everett
Hodge, Florence
Holmes, Berta
Hooker, H. D.
Howard, Clara E.
Hurst, Nellie
Jenkins, T. H.
Jones, Evelyn
Kentling, W. Emil
King, S. O.
Koch, Jessie
Lewis, Howard F.
Lowe, Lewis E.
Mason, Charley
Matthews, Joe
McCarty, Adeline
McLaughlin, Willa
McLean, Julia E.
Melton, Mrs. Leslie
Mignolet, George
Miller, Sam M.
Myers, Etta Mae
Nichols, Larew
Page, Octava
Palmer, C. J.
Perkins, Mrs. Mattie
Picken, May L.
Pye, Emeroy
Raines, George M.
Rayne, Margaret A.
Sears, Joyce
Schmitz, Laura
Scott, Albert W.
Siebert, W. S. V.
Snyder, Helen Vivian
Spaid, John W.
Thomson, Mrs. Florence
Underwood, C. E.
Urban, Mrs. W. C.
Utt, Mrs. Paul R.
Walker, Verna
Wilder, Anne Crombie
Work, Rev. J. B.
Wright, Erma
Wyllie, Barnett D. S.
Yates, John Logan

Montana

Ayotte, Mrs. Cecil
Beaver, Raymond
Bolles, Mrs. Melva C.
Brainard, Bessie Lee
Brown, Virginia
Cleaver, Donna Ruth
Garry, Mrs. Marguerite Hughes
Gilmore, Mrs. Alice M.
Gray, Mary B.
Hauck, Elsie Christina
Hazard, Ann
Heaton, Hazel
Jacobson, Irene
Lanx, Mary
Leonard, Minnie
Malone, Brigid E.
McManis, Sarah
Phillips, Mrs. Margaret W.
Rose, Henrietta
Severns, Mrs. Othel
Shaw, Obed K.
Smith, Mrs. Rex
Smith, Spencer
Stark, Pearlette C.
Steere, E. A.
Stubbe, Elma
Sykes, Erie B.
Sullivan, Margaret
Thompson, G. W.
Williams, Lillian
Williamson, Charles C.
Wylie, W. W.

Nebraska

Anderson, C. M.
Barrett, Callie
Bartels, R. F.
Bell, Lillian
Blakeslee, T. A.
Cloon, C. E.
Dressler, Martha
Engberg, Dean
Gilkeson, Loy
Graham, Robert
Gutmann, Pauline
Harris, Ardath
Hilton, Lucile
Houboldt, Chauncey
Johns, Gladys B.
Kossebaum, Pauline
Laeger, Phoebe
Lehman, Ida
Ludwick, Vesta
McDonald, Mrs. J. M.
Markwell, Ora
Rooney, Helen B.
Rouse, Mildred
Schrock, Etta
Scott, Ruth E.
Smith, Opal

Nevada

Cannon, Mrs. W. S.
Persinger, Clark

New Jersey

Beatty, Peter
Bergen, Abbie W.
Black, Anna
Boileau, Sarah
Bonney, Alice
Brown, Elmer S.
Burns, Ethel J.
Chancy, Mittie F.
Clair, Kathryn E.
Condie, Isabel A.
Connelly, Margaret F.
Cooke, Georgiana
Dowd, Rosalie S.
Dutcher, Edward H.
Estabrook, Laura B.
Fithian, Laura M.
Fithian, Powell G.
Hart, Belle F.
Hart, Frank E.
Herron, Anna C.
Herz, Frieda B.
Hibner, Neva M.
Hillman, Mary D.
Kerr, William T.
Kymer, Mabel
Leers, Hilma
MacMaster, Esther F.
McLaury, John C.
Mettee, Anna C.
Miller, Ida L. K.
Morrow, Jean E.
Murtha, Sara B.
Preston, Anna M.
Randolph, Bessie Dee
Reed, Lilian M.
Riggs, Ella F.
Robinson, Mary
Rooney, Mary
Rue, Mary S.
Schwartz, Laura B.
Stearns, Ada M.
Sturgis, Glenworth
Timmanus, Emma
Urban, Grace
Watson, Mary M.
Wood, Mabel L.
Young, Myra S.

New York

Anderson, Charles J.
Barber, Henry I.
Bard, Bertha A.
Brennan, Annie
Brennan, Emma M.
Brown, Mrs. Eva B.
Butler, Ida B.
Connor, Katherine F.
Cook, Ella H.
Cooley, Mary Z.
Curran, Pauline
DeLaney, Eleanor V.
Fisher, Katharine
Gosnell, Hattie L.
Greenlaw, Mrs. Elsie
Hall, Dorothy K.
Humiston, Mary C.
Knight, Marion E.
Leseritz, Julia
Maloney, Mrs. Agnes
Martin, Genevieve B.
McCarthy, Margaret
McNamara, Mary E.
Miller, Mrs. Jennie
Mollen, Mary V.
Moore, Elsie V.
Perry, Mrs. Clara A.
Pilling, Edna F.
Rogers, Lois M.
Rogers, Rovillus R.
Scott, Mrs. Mabel M.
Smith, Elizabeth J.
Smith, Merle
Tompkins, Marjorie L.
Wightman, Ellen M.
Zimmerman, Sterling A.

North Dakota

May, Samuel T.
Stebbins, W. C.

Ohio

Albert, Amelia
Amos, Ruth
Baker, Gladys
Bauman, George
Bell, Ernestine
Betts, Harriet M.
Biggs, Hazel F.
Butcher, J. W. D.
Callow, Nina F.
Campbell, Sallie J.
Conrath, Anna
Costigan, Nan
Davis, John W.
Dean, Harriet M.
Dollecke, Richard A.
Donahue, Margaret
Druhot, R. L.
Evans, L. C.
Fischer, Emilie
Furness, Mary B.
Greer, Sarah
Hammond, Jane M.
Hardisty, Idoletta
Hart, Baxter E.
Hartman, H. H.
Heidloff, Hazel Puerner
Henry, Hazel
Hess, Margaret
Hoff, Lida
Johnson, Herbert
Kinsella, Anna L.
Kleinschmidt, Ethel D.
Latimer, Anna E.
Leete, Bertina
McCoart, Rose L.
McCurdy, Halcyone
Maihle, Lennie
Moore, John W.
Mumma, Florence
Noble, Louis E.
Ridgeley, C. F.
Rinehart, Belle
Rodenberger, Minnie
Rutherford, Ruth
Sammon, Thomas
Schumacher, W. M.
Seaholm, Emma
Semple, Ruth E.
Sheen, Margaret J.
Sheldon, Katherine
Shields, Edith
Shook, Nettie
Snyder, Olive
Spangler, Georgette L.
Suid, Mildred
Thomas, C. E.
Van Noorden, Anna
Walker, Margaret
Webb, Sallie H.
Weber, Elsie
Weinfeld, Cora
White, Pearl
Williams, Mabelle
Zettel, Winifred
Zook, Samuel E.

Oklahoma

Adamson, J. C.
Barnett, Laura
Brightwell, Mrs. E. E.
Buchanan, J. S.
Campbell, J. R.
Cary, Frances
Dickerson, L. H.
Dungan, J. W.
Fuller, Mrs. Voretta
Gray, Phil
Henry, Margaret Louise
Horton, G. W.
Lee, W. F.
Madden, Mrs. Addie
Newman, Grace
Oakley, Edward
Palmour, Mrs. Irma
Perdue, George
Riling, Mrs. A. E.
Spahr, M. Z.
Standley, Floy
Sykes, Mrs. Sallie
Twiggs, Margaret Louise
Veatch, Mrs. Rose
Wray, Wineva Fanning
Wyse, Mrs. Mildred Powell
Young, Miss Joe

Oregon

Bates, Dorothy
Groenwald, A. E.
Kessler, Mrs. Ella Willett
Madison, Helen Brown
Monson, Hilda
Richardson, Lucine
Roberts, Frances Ida
Walsh, Mary Jo
Wilson, Leota

Pennsylvania

Acker, Myrtie T.
Allen, William Orville
Beatty, Emma S.
Benson, Nelson P.
Bordner, George C.
Bovard, E. D.
Brumbaugh, Martin G.
Clancy, Mary
Cochrane, Charles C.
Cribbs, Olive M.
Curran, Carrie C.
Day, W. Perry
Dindinger, Mary
Dixon, Janice F.
Edwards, May Northrop
Ely, Sara Catell
Fenton, John E.
Finton, Iva Myers
Foster, Irving L.
Freet, Sanford M.
Geesey, Walter A.
German, Emma M.
Gilroy, Catherine
Greathead, Carrie Sterrett
Greves, Eulalia
Groome, Esther M.
Hargis, Jessie W.
Howell, Z. R.
Hull, Ruth S.
Hyatt, Charles E.
Isenberg, James M. S.
Karlson, Claus Emanuel
Kauffman, Rose M.
Keith, David S.
Kline, Rolin
Kressler, James F.
Lambert, Benjamin F.
Landes, Amanda
McCafferty, Myrtle
McCloskey, Joseph R.
McDonell, Anna M.
McIntyre, Mary H.
Merz, Otto C. A.
Mitchell, Sadie
Mohler, John Frederick

Morris, Emma
Newman, Dorothy
O'Connell, Margaret
Pennypacker, Charles D.
Reed, George Edward
Sampson, Robert M.
Sanford, Martha L.
Secor, James
Shea, Mary V.
Slawson, Samuel J.
Snyder, Edward
Steel, Laura V.
Stehle, D. Aurelius
Treffinger, Jane
Turner, Charlotte E.
Whiteside, Frank R.
Wilson, A. W.
Wirth, Mrs. Ethel
Woodward, P. W.
Yake, J. Francis
Ziegenfus, Warren Allen

Rhode Island

Augustus, Mary F.
Barney, Abby V.
Baxter, Herbert E.
Campbell, Dudley E.
Chaffee, Edith E.
Coffey, Jennie T.
Cole, Patience
Cooney, Mary K.
Daniels, Mrs. Lillian L.
Davis, Edna F.
Dillon, Josephine
Dredge, M. Ruth
Earle, Anna
Edwards, Howard
Elderkin, Ella C.
Essex, Helen E.
Faunce, H. P.
Harris, Ida M.
Hopkins, Fannie E. D.
Kelley, Ursula A.
Kent, Bertha R.
Leathers, Jennie B.
Leddy, Frances G. Nolan
McCabe, Rose G.
McCormack, Mary T.
McCusker, M. Florence Rafter
Miller, Victor I.
Montague, Jennie Bransfield
Myers, Eleanor L.
Nichols, Mary J.
Noonan, Lizzie M.
Peirce, Katharine U.
Phinney, Lucy M. B.
Powers, Rose
Richardson, Harriet Helme
Ross, Isabelle E. Oldfield
Savaria, Madeleine W. Daley
Taylor, Ethel E. Cass
Towne, Elizabeth L.
Towne, Walter J.
Walradt, Henry W.
Waterman, Adelaide
West, Beldora M.
Whiting, Elmira E.
Williams, Margaret M.
Wyman, Elwood T.

South Dakota

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Almos, Elmer P.
Asker, William
Carper, Mrs. W. H.
Clough, W. O.
Cloyd, David E.
Duncan, Mrs. George
Edmond, Ida M.
Furman, Erle Tyler
Greenwald, Ralph H.
Hager, Edward E.
James, Charles A.
Johnson, Mrs. Beatrice
Lorden, Margaret
Lugg, Charles H.
Peabody, Eunice
Peabody, Helen S.
Sanders, George
Schwager, F. W.
Sheets, Mrs. George H.
Thompson, T. T.
Van Kirk, Mrs. Katherine R.
Warren, Mrs. Olive
Wentzy, Mrs. Susan Bailey

Tennessee

Dresslar, Fletcher Bascom
Bernard, Ollie
Gillentine, L. S.
Ziegler, John S.

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Atkisson, Mrs. Lydia
Bachtel, Mrs. M. K.
Backhus, A.
Black, Betty
Blasienz, Mrs. Cleveland
Bodenhammer, David S.
Brown, J. S.
Bullock, Mrs. Jewel
Campbell, I. C.
Carlisle, J. S.
Chancellor, Luther H.
Charles C. S. C.
Christen, L. J.
Deady, Kate
Donald, Robert
Elliott, Flossie Bell
Frost, S. E.
Gardner, Mrs. Lena
Giles, J. A.
Grayson, Florence
Gullett, T. A.
Gurst, Mrs. E. W.
Hogue, A. K.
Hoover, Miller
Huguley, W. C.
Hyer, R. S.
Jameson, C. A.
Martiny, William
Mathews, James
McDonald, J. W.
McGarr, Kathryn
McGehee, Eva
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Page, Walter
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Sellers, Verna
Smallwood, Ed
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Smith, D. B.
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Weaver, Hal C.
Wilder, Florine

Utah

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Smith, Arthur C.

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Tully, Charles
White, Mary

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Hay, Alice M.
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Moore, Geneva
von Schilling, Ilma

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Bras, C. C.
Burns, Omar Allen
Cobb, John
Cook, Edgar
Dun, Mrs. Marie
Dunlap, Margaret
Edens, Olive
Fairchild, G. A.
Fleming, O. B.
Freeborg, Edith
Grupe, Mary
Henning, Wilson A.
Logan, Victoria
Metsker, Charles
Miller, Mrs. Allice
Miller, George Burdette
Ober, Caroline
Overhulse, C. V.
Powell, Margaret
Rarey, Raymond H.
Umbarger, Elizabeth

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Anderson, Lorain
Anderson, Ruth S.
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Austin, Mrs. A. J.
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Black, Mrs. John
Bohrer, Rosalie
Boughton, Mrs. Frances
Braden, Mrs. Ethel I.
Calkins, Miss Glee S.
Carter, Warren T.
Christenson, Clara S.
Chrystal, Ella E.
Cochrane, William Avery
Collins, Maud
Cook, John Henry
Davis, Frank D.
Dean, Emma Lydia
Deland, Mrs. Mary Sweet
Detert, Janet
Dietz, Mrs. Harriet
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Gillett, Mrs. Laura
Goldie, Anna
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Gunderson, Mrs. Nicholas
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Hansen, Gladys C.
Hatch, M. A.
Helsten, Dell
Hintz, Mrs. Charles
Hosford, Margaret
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Ingler, Francis M.
Isham, Mrs. Ruth Wales
Johnson, William L.
Jostad, Barney M.
Keats, Myron E.
Kenyon, Edith L.
Kingsley, Nathan Harvey
Kroening, Frank
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Lewis, John P.
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McDonald, Katherine
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Milm, Louis Wendelin
Miller, Matilda
Miller, Mrs. Mildred Moore
Moser, Robert
Pashley, Antoinette
Peterson, Irene
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Reesman, Clara
Richards, Griffith
Roeffs, Constance
Runke, R. B.
Scheidlo, Ray
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Smart, Clara
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Steinhorst, Alex
Stewart, Mrs. David
Tillson, Mrs. Pembooke S.
Timmermann, Oscar A.
Travioli, Mrs. S. G.
Trumbull, Belle
Waite, Mrs. Dorothy R.
Wedekind, Henry L.
Woodbury, Mrs. Lyle W.
Woodhouse, Lucille A.
Woolford, Blanche
Williams, Jennie
Williams, W. T.
Wynn, Ella N.
Youman, Carlton F.

Wyoming

Anderson, Mabel
Watson, T. J.

THE TENTH REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

Delegates who attended the Sixty-eighth annual meeting of the National Education Association in Columbus, Ohio, June 28-July 4, 1930. The classification of positions includes (1) directors and supervisors, (2) superintendents, (3) principals, (4) classroom teachers, (5) college and normal presidents, (6) educational editors and secretaries, and (7) ex-officio members.

ALABAMA

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Dobbins, Harriet (Teacher), 1507 South 13th Street, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.

Dowling, H. S. (Superintendent of Schools), Tuscaloosa; Alabama Education Association.

Glenn, C. B. (Superintendent of Schools), Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.

Grove, Frank L. (Secretary), Alabama Education Association, First National Bank Bldg., Montgomery; Alabama Education Association.

Judd, Zebulon (ex-officio), Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn.

Pickrel, Mary B. (Supervisor), Moulton; Alabama Education Association.

Price, R. H. (Teacher), 1321 Bush Boulevard, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.

Reeves, Mrs. A. T. (Teacher), 510 Tremont Street, Selma; Alabama Education Association.

Williams, J. D. (Principal), Avondale School, Birmingham; Alabama Education Association.

ALASKA

Bolyan, Mrs. Helen (Teacher), Thane; Alaska Education Association.

Karnes, A. E. (Superintendent of Schools), Ketchikan; Alaska Education Association.

ARIZONA

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Guitteau, Paul (Teacher), Thatcher; Arizona Education Association.

Kennedy, Bertha S. (Principal), Flagstaff; Arizona Education Association.

Matthews, A. J. (President), Arizona State Teachers College, Tempe; Arizona Education Association

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Miller, Dorothy (Teacher), Mesa; Arizona Education Association.

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Yoder, Ruth V. (Teacher), Wooster; Tucson Teachers Association.

ARKANSAS

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Hall, W. F. (Supervisor), State Department of Education, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.

Kays, V. C. (President), State Agricultural and Mechanical College; Jonesboro; Arkansas Education Association.

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Leasure, Floyd J. (Teacher), 1480 Ross Avenue, Long Beach; Long Beach City Teachers Club.

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Meline, Virginia (Teacher), 2642 Fulton Street, Berkeley; San Francisco Classroom Teachers Association.

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Fifth Yearbook, Department of Classroom Teachers	May, 1930	2,500	308	770,000
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July Bulletin, Department of Elementary School Principals	July, 1930	6,500	64	416,000
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How Shall We Secure a Department of Education?		5,000	4	20,000
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